

Developmental Guidance in Secondary School

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DEVELOPMENTAL GUIDANCE IN SECONDARY SCHOOL

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to YOUTH
who need so much
to be understood
by grown-ups

Preface

Implicit in this book are certain fundamental assumptions. The first of these is that an understanding of the persistent problems about which youth tend to worry most is basic to functional guidance in secondary school. Guidance is most likely to be sought and accepted by young people when they are convinced that their problems are understood by personnel workers, specialists and teachers alike, who place their welfare first on the list of professional obligations. Such understanding provides the bases for valid purposes and methods of guidance to meet the developmental needs of pupils in secondary school.

Second, most schools are unable to provide the services of full-time specialists in the field of guidance. This circumstance makes it all the more important that teacher-counselors and teachers in general become more expert in their ability to provide intelligent guidance for youth. Otherwise the chief claim in this connection can rest upon little more than attempts to "adjust" pupils to existing curriculum patterns and instructional procedures. But this is not all. The absence of a staff of teachers dedicated to the performance of guidance services they can and should provide will vastly limit, in the future as in the past, the effectiveness of special guidance workers in those schools fortunate enough to provide such functionaries. Indeed, specialists in such circumstances may not be expected to proceed much beyond the data-gathering level, and they will continue to be handicapped even at this point. Teachers should not continue the frequent practice of looking upon those designated as guidance personnel as specialists who can manage for themselves. Such teachers usually assume that the guidance person is a relief agent in that his very presence on the staff absolves them of all major responsibilities other than those incident to teaching

their several school subjects. Obviously, this gap between special service officials and teachers should be closed in the interest of millions of pupils in the secondary schools of America.

Third, when administrators and their staffs understand the problems of most concern to youth, and when they possess at least a minimum fund of information bearing upon the *why* of adolescent behavior, they will then see that guidance is an integral part of secondary education instead of an appendage that is thought too valuable to lop completely but not valuable enough to nourish into productivity.

Consistent with what has just been said, it is assumed, fourth, that the most justifiable approach to the study of guidance in the secondary school is in terms of the problems of most concern to youth; problems young people recognize as their own, and about which they worry most.

Hence this book. It is designed especially for those who are beginning their studies in preparation for guidance responsibilities in the secondary school, and for those engaged in on-the-job study to improve existing guidance services. In keeping with its intended uses, the present volume aims:

1. To acquaint students with the nature of problems which are of most concern to secondary-school pupils.
2. To provide information by which prospective guidance personnel and those already in service may understand some of the more important relationships between the problems and the behavior of youth.
3. To provide practical suggestions for initiating guidance activities, and for expanding the role of guidance in the secondary school.

The authors are particularly grateful to the thousands of young people who provided much of the substance of this book, and to the many principals and teachers who so willingly gave assistance. Appreciation also goes to the following publishers and authors for permission to quote passages from copyrighted materials: American Book Co.; American Council on Education; D. Appleton-Century Co.; The Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development; A. S. Barnes and Co.; Educational Research Bulletin, Ohio State University; Harper and Brothers; D. C. Heath and Co.; Houghton Mifflin Co.; International Textbook Co.; McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc.; The Macmillan Co.; Prentice-Hall, Inc.; Rinehart

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CHAPTER 1 *The Nature of Youth's Problems*

The expanding role of secondary education, with particular reference to increased guidance services, has stimulated considerable effort among research workers to identify the problems of most concern to youth. Indeed, in recent years several studies of this nature have been published, thus providing a fairly reliable reservoir of information about young people which goes beyond the usual data on file in school offices.

The most common method of studying youth's problems is the questionnaire, or some modification of it. Several representative studies of this type are presented in following paragraphs. These studies differ in purpose and in design, but one of the major characteristics of each is that it tends to guide the responses of pupils.

STUDYING YOUTH'S PROBLEMS

In 1932 Ethel Percy Andrus asked 3,000 girls the following question, "If you could have your dearest wish, what would it be?" In the interpretation of 2,518 replies to her question, Andrus¹ stated:

The most frequent suggestion in high school programming was for a lessening or at least regulation of homework which now, it is said, eats up all the time one should give to home activities and social contacts.

Lessons on life and its meaning are demanded even more than training in making one's livelihood.

An opportunity for training for homemaking is desired more than subjects teaching personal adornment or social graces; and although almost as many desire the increase of intellectual opportunities, there are

¹ Ethel Percy Andrus, "What the Girl of Today Asks of the School," *Journal of the American Association of University Women*, 25:143-148, April, 1932.

almost one-third this number who are opposed to any more effort in this direction

Girls request of the high school:

Courses offering immediate enrichment for community, for home, and for self.

A happy and efficient teacher whose charming personality may be the magic mirror where many an unnoticed girl sees herself charming and desirable.

More chances to choose the subjects desired, already enriched by the girl's own interest.

As a part of the study just cited, Andrus also obtained the reactions of 213 mothers who were members of high-school parent-teacher associations. Her summary of both studies reads thus: ²

In summarizing the expressions of both girls and mothers, there is evident a genuine seeking for guidance in matters concerning social relations, particularly personal conduct, marriage, and the question of sex. They contend that since progress and civilization mean better ways of doing things, the school—oftentimes the font of information weary, stale, flat, and unprofitable—should feel a definite responsibility in more vital problems and give a friendly, wise, and wholesome solution to the perplexing and interesting problems of human relationships.

Symonds reported the results of a study of the life problems and the life interests of adolescents in 1936. The study attempted to discover (1) what phase of current living adolescents find most interesting, and (2) what phase of current living adolescents find most serious, most challenging, and most important. The basis of Symonds's study is the following list of fifteen areas of individual concern:

1. *Health*: eating, drinking, exercise, posture, sleep and rest, air and temperature, sunlight, clothing, bathing care of special parts, cleanliness and prevention of disease, excretion and elimination, use of drugs.

2. *Sex Adjustment*: love, petting, courtship, marriage.

3. *Safety*: avoiding accidents and injuries.

4. *Money*: earning, spending, saving, etc.

5. *Mental Hygiene*: fears, worries, inhibition, compulsion, feeling of inferiority, fantasies, etc.

6. *Study Habits*: skills used in study, methods of work, problem-solving.

² *Ibid.*

7. *Recreation*: sports and games, reading, arts and crafts, fellowship and social activities, hobbies.

8. *Personal and Moral Qualities*: qualities leading to success, qualities of good citizenship.

9. *Home and Family Relations*: living harmoniously with members of the family.

10. *Manners and Courtesy*: etiquette.

11. *Personal Attractiveness*: personal appearance, voice, clothing.

12. *Daily Schedule*: planning twenty-four hours a day.

13. *Civic Interests, Attitudes, and Responsibilities*.

14. *Getting Along with Other People*.

15. *Philosophy of Life*: personal values, ambitions, ideals, religion.

The students were asked to rank these fifteen areas as to interest and as to importance as problem areas. Replies were received from 373 boys and 439 girls in the junior and senior high schools of Tulsa, Oklahoma, and from 411 boys and 418 girls in the Grover Cleveland High School in New York City. The conclusions drawn by Symonds follow.⁴

Items ranked as of greatest importance as problems are "Money," "Health," and "Personal Attractiveness."

Items ranked as of least importance as problems are "Sex Adjustments," "Daily Schedule," and "Civic Interests, Attitudes, and Responsibility."

Items ranked highest for interest are "Recreation," "Health," and "Personal Attractiveness."

Items ranked lowest for interest are "Daily Schedule," "Civic Interests, Attitudes and Responsibilities," and "Sex Adjustments."

Items ranked highest for importance as problems than for interest are "Study Habits," "Daily Schedule," and "Manners and Courtesy."

Illustrative of a different type of study of youth's problems is that completed by Mooney. He made a check-list survey of the problems of 603 students in the Stephen-Lee High School in Asheville, North Carolina. The Mooney check list contains 330 problems which sometimes trouble secondary-school students. There are thirty problems listed in each of the following categories: (1) health and physical development; (2) finances, living conditions, and employment; (3) social and recreational activities; (4) courtship, sex, and marriage; (5) social-psychological relations; (6) personal-psychologi-

⁴ Percival M. Symonds, "Life Problems and Interests of Adolescents," *School Review*, 44:506-518, September, 1930.

cal relations; (7) morals and religion; (8) home and family life; (9) future, vocational and educational; (10) adjustment to school work; (11) curriculum and teaching procedures. The directions for completing the check list are easily followed, and tabulation of results is not a laborious task.

In a report of this study, Mooney⁴ pointed out the patterns of responses of several students and indicated the group characteristics of the problems found among the respondents. A summary of the results of his investigation may best be stated in terms of the "next steps which may be advisable for the school to consider in its general program of development."

1. Increasing school vocational and educational guidance functions.

2. Developing a placement service for part-time employment, a work-education program which synchronizes work with schooling, or other realistic methods of meeting the needs of the students in the financial area.

3. Analyzing the academic difficulties of the students and evaluating teaching practices and curriculum organization in relation to the most prevalent needs of this situation.

4. Providing more opportunities in individual guidance, home-room procedures, and curriculum content for students to express and deal competently with their everyday psychological problems.

5. Accepting health as one of the first objectives of the school, and securing the cooperation of community agencies for a first-class program in this area.

Perhaps the most elaborate of the inventory-type studies to determine youth's attitudes and problems of adjustment is the one conducted by Elias⁵ of the State College of Washington. The point of view underlying this study is found in the foreword of the printed summary of results. Elias states: *

Youth's problems and their social adjustment have been absorbing personal and professional interests during my eighteen years as a high school coach, principal, and counselor. In such work one may often observe fairly consistent patterns of difference between boys and girls, between farm and city youth, and between various communities, their friends, and their

⁴ Ross L. Mooney, "Surveying High-school Students' Problems by Means of a Problem Check List," *Educational Research Bulletin*, The Ohio State University, Vol. 21, No. 3, March, 1942.

⁵ L. J. Elias, *High School Youth Look at Their Problems*, Students Book Corporation, Washington State College, Pullman, Wash., 1949.

* *Ibid.*, Foreword.

future. These differences might have significant bearing upon the manner in which each could be helped to solve the problems of adjustment to social living.

It seemed reasonable that a broad survey of youth's attitudes and problems of adjustment would permit us to make more accurate comparison of these differences between groups of youth, particularly if we were to use an inventory designed to meet the interests of young people in each of the important phases of their social living. Such a survey would also enable us to establish norms on youth attitudes, which in turn would permit high school principals, counselors, and students to compare their problems in social adjustment with those of other schools, and with the general picture of youth finding their places in modern society.

Elias prepared an extensive check list which was administered to 5,500 secondary-school youth, 4,500 of whom checked the inventory during the month preceding their graduation from high schools in the state of Washington. The results of this survey have been tabulated, showing the responses to each question and its subdivisions on a percentage basis under three headings, "Boy," "Girl," and "Total."

No attempt is made here to give a complete summary of Elias's study. It is available in printed form for those who desire to examine it critically. It is important, however, to describe the instrument by which Elias collected the data in some detail for two reasons: First, check lists prepared by other researchers were utilized by the author for comparative purposes, thereby indicating a fairly definite trend in the nature of problems young people are currently being called upon to identify as their own; and second, the questionnaire includes several types of items concerning a number of topics which are designed to determine something of the nature of youth's attitudes toward various phases of life.

Elias's questionnaire, *High School Youth Look at Their Problems*, presents students with a short, clear set of directions and calls first for a body of census data. Following this, the questionnaire is composed of two major divisions. The first of these attempts to secure both specific information about each student and the attitude of each student toward certain phases of life. This portion of the instrument is developed under the following headings: "In General," "My Parents," "My Home and Me," "My Family and Me," "Me and My Family," "After Graduation, What?," "School Life and Me," "Love and Stuff," "Life and Me," and "This and That." Each of these

subdivisions includes certain questions or statements to which the student may react in one of several ways. For example, under the heading "My Family and Me" the arrangement is typically this:

51. When I am the age of my father (for boys) mother (for girls), I would like to be:

- 1 () exactly like (him) (her).
- 2 () much like (him) (her).
- 3 () somewhat like (him) (her).
- 4 () different from (him) (her).
- 5 () entirely different.
- 6 () don't know.

The second major division of Elias's inventory is addressed to students in these words: "Everybody has his or her personal worries—what are yours?" This list of personal worries is divided into the following categories: "Personal Problems," "Family Problems," "Social Problems," "Vocational Problems," "Boy and Girl Problems," "School Problems," and "Morals, Ideals, Religion, the Future." Each category includes about thirty to sixty problems, and students are asked to circle the problem or two about which they have worried most. The character of this phase of Elias's inventory can best be described by an illustration taken from the category designated "Social Problems."

63.

- 1 How to make friends.
- 2 Keep from quarreling with friends.
- 3 My friends quarreling with me.
- 4 Attitude of my school mates.
- 5 Getting acquainted in school.
- 6 Hurting other people's feelings.
- 7 Other people hurting my feelings.
- 8 Being left out of things.
- 9 Getting into certain activities.
- 0 Getting along with other kids.

Finally, the Elias inventory includes a small section designated "What Do You Think of It?" Here a few questions of a somewhat personal nature are raised, and then young people are asked to state frankly whether or not they believe the questionnaire is worth the effort it takes to complete it.

Thus the literature of research pertaining to the personal and social problems of youth indicates much of considerable value to guidance functionaries in secondary schools. The chief values seem to lie in the development of techniques by which youth's worries can be identified and in the identification of problems about which young people worry most. Guidance workers should be reminded, however, that the check list or problems inventory has certain weaknesses. In the first place, such instruments are necessarily suggestive. Second, the problem of semantics is always present no matter how great the effort to be simple and clear in all details. Third, such instruments must include a long list of closely related problems from which students are to select relatively few that are of most concern to them, thus complicating the matter for the student while satisfying the criterion of comprehensiveness. Fourth, students frequently hesitate to identify certain problems with themselves, particularly if the check list requires them to furnish intimate census data, such as the income and marital status of parents. Fifth, boys and girls in secondary school are as a rule very accommodating. They will usually fill out any form placed before them without a great deal of fuss. They are currently given a considerable array of tests and forms to take and to complete, and they discuss and decide which ones "count" and which do not. As a matter of fact, the authors of this volume have followed up the completion of forms which were "okay but don't count" only to find what is suspected to be a significant number of students who frankly admitted lack of seriousness when supplying the answers. In fairness to students, however, this lack of seriousness was frequently traceable to the fact that they were not particularly impressed by the reasons given for supplying the information.

Recognizing some of the difficulties just mentioned, the authors attempted to determine the problems youth worry about most by use of the free-response, or nondirective, technique. The procedure used and the results of the study are described in succeeding paragraphs.

DETERMINING YOUTH'S PROBLEMS BY FREE RESPONSE

In planning the study of youth's problems by use of the free-response technique, every reasonable effort was made to inform

the students called upon to identify their most pressing worries about *who* was making the study, *why* the study was being made, and *how* the information provided was to be used. A second consideration was the time span of the study. The third major phase of planning had to do with coverage, geographically and by types of schools.

Information for Students. To be sure that all students had the same information and directions before listing the problems about which they were most concerned, their teachers were asked to read aloud the following letter:

Dear Students:

We should like to introduce ourselves by telling you that we are teachers. We teach in the field called education, which is that field of study organized especially for those who are planning to teach and for those who have already entered the profession of teaching. We are very anxious, therefore, to help people become excellent teachers.

For a good many years superintendents, principals, teachers, and counselors have been trying to find out just what it is that worries young people your ages the most. Why? Because the schools are now being thought of as places where students go to get help in the solution of all their problems as well as to study English, mathematics, science, and other subjects. If such help is to be given you, we should know the sort of help you need.

To be sure, we know a good deal about you, but we do not know enough. So we are coming straight to you for help, and we hope you will want to help us. We need information which we believe only you and others your ages can give to us. This, then, is what we should like each of you to do.

1. Write your age and your sex in the upper right-hand corner of a clean sheet of paper.

2. Take as much time as you like and write down the problems about which you worry most. This is asking for it straight, so please be frank.

3. When you have written your problems, hand them to your teacher who will put yours and all the others in a large envelope and send them to us just as they are written.

When we receive your problems and those from thousands of other students from many sections of the United States, we believe we shall have a good idea of things about which you worry most. In

turn, we hope to make the information available to all our fellow teachers so that all of us together, with your help, may be better fitted for the jobs we are called upon to do for students in our schools.

Thank you so much for your help.

Sincerely yours,

Wilson Little

A. L. Chapman

Instructions to Administrators and Teachers. In pursuance of the study being described, certain instructions were given to administrators and teachers in cooperating schools.

1. Administrators were asked to select from among their staffs those teachers in whom students had the greatest confidence to gather pupils' problems.

2. Administrators were asked to send immediately to the authors, express collect, the problems gathered in their schools.

3. Both administrators and teachers were asked *not* to edit or change pupils' problems in any way.

4. Teachers were asked to be as kindly and as helpful as possible in creating an atmosphere fitting to the occasion, but in no circumstance to put words into the mouths of students.

5. Finally, teachers were asked to read the letter quoted above to students and to give them time to write their problems.

Time Span of This Study. How much time should be devoted to the study of problems of most concern to secondary-school youth? Would the results of a short-term study be as revealing as the results of a study covering a time span of, say, two, four, six, or ten years? The present investigators frankly did not know the answers to these questions. Still another question was this: Since this study was begun in the fall of 1942, would it not be well to gather data on students' worries periodically for several years in an attempt to discover the extent to which certain types of worries tend to appear as fundamental and persistent in the lives of young people; or, conversely, to discover the extent to which certain problems loom large at the moment only to become inconsequential after a brief period of time? The authors of this study reasoned thus: *Despite the fact that crises occur in the national life, the fundamental causes of worry among secondary-school youth tend to persist so long as society's major social functions remain basically the same as to nature and purposes.* A time span of almost ten years was therefore devoted to this study.

Moreover, the persistent nature of youth's worries validated the reasoning just described.

It is not suggested that research in this field is no longer needed. Educators should continue to study the nature of youth's personal and social problems if for no other reason than to establish appropriate points of emphasis in guidance and in instruction from time to time.

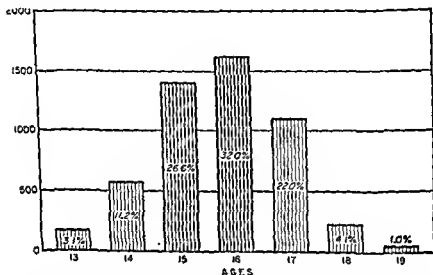


FIG. 1. Distribution of 4,957 respondents, by age, number, and per cent.

Coverage. To obtain the problems about which youth in secondary schools worry most, the cooperation of superintendents, principals, and teachers was secured. Schools from the following states were represented: California, Colorado, Illinois, Indiana, Louisiana, New Jersey, New York, Oklahoma, Texas, and Wisconsin. A total of 4,957 pupils representing forty-five school systems yielded 19,006 problems. Figure 1 shows the distribution of respondents by ages. Reference to Figure 1 reveals that nearly 92 per cent of the total of 4,957 pupils listing problems about which they worry most were in the age bracket fourteen to seventeen years. Boys and girls fifteen, sixteen, and seventeen years of age composed 80.6 per cent of the total number of respondents.

Cooperating schools were originally selected upon the basis of representativeness with respect to size, type, and location. It was

found, however, that these factors bore practically no relationship to the types of problems students reported as their own. It would add nothing worth while to the meaning of this study, therefore, to classify data according to size, type, and location of the schools from which data were obtained.

Special care was taken to be sure that students contributing information concerning their worries were selected from various types of classes. This precaution was taken to eliminate the possibility of a constant bias, which might have been present if the responses had been collected from any single group, such as social-studies classes, or music classes, or homeroom groups. Consequently, problems were furnished by students representing nearly every type of grouping to be found in the several schools.

THE NATURE OF YOUTH'S PROBLEMS

The 19,006 problems about which youth worry most, each presented in the handwriting of its author, were carefully analyzed and grouped into certain categories. This was no small task. Each problem had to be read and reread thoughtfully; each problem had to be keyed and placed in proper relationship to other problems, thus building up major categories and their subdivisions. This process continued, with the investigators going out to schools personally from time to time to find out what still other boys and girls worry about, thereby checking the method of the study and the analysis of data at various steps along the way. Upon final classification and arrangement of data, the following problem areas, named in order of rank, were found to define in a general way the nature of youth's major problems: (1) social adjustment, (2) family relations, (3) the use of time, (4) the future, (5) personality, (6) part-time jobs and money, and (7) health.

Figure 2 indicates the areas into which secondary-school students' problems fall, according to rank and frequency of mention by sex. Aside from the fact that Figure 2 reveals the general nature of the problems about which youth worry and the frequency of mention of these problems, attention is called to the differences in frequency in certain areas between boys and girls. In the areas of social adjustment and family relations particularly, the differences are significant when it is noted that of the total number of students revealing the

nature of their worries, slightly less than 52 per cent were girls. Figure 2 also shows that girls worry a little more than boys about problems in the use of time and somewhat more about personality, while boys worry more about part-time jobs and money and about health.

The problem areas listed in Figure 2 are described and illustrated in detail in Chapters 2 to 8. It is appropriate at this point, however,

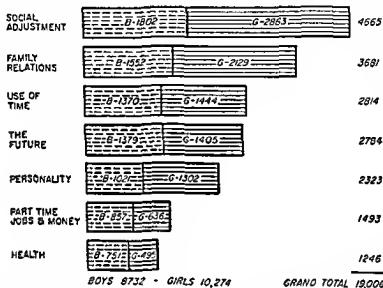


FIG. 2. Areas into which secondary-school students' problems fall, by rank and frequency of mention by sex.

to itemize the types of problems which, when taken together, compose the larger areas into which secondary-school youth's chief worries fall. It should be remembered that, for the most part, the types of difficulties experienced by young people in their efforts to make satisfactory adjustments represent the *here and now* in point of time. To them the future is often dim and very distant.

Social Adjustment. Types of problems in the area of social adjustment about which youth are most concerned are these:

- How best to get along with boy or girl friends
- How to feel socially accepted
- How best to entertain
- How best to choose friends

- How best to get information and make decisions about love and marriage
- How to secure facilities for recreation
- How to dress
- How to acquire social ease
- How often to have dates; when to get home
- How best to meet people

Family Relations. It was shown in Figure 2 that problems stemming from home and family life rank second on the worry list of boys and girls in secondary schools. Perhaps youth's attitudes toward home and family life should be reappraised, not condemned, when it is realized that they are inclined to worry so much about problems caused by:

- Disagreement between child and parents on matters of standards
- Lack of understanding between parents and child
- Conflicts between brothers and sisters
- Incompatibility, broken home, neglect
- Too little time with parents
- Inability to get along with relatives

The Use of Time. Time is an important factor in the lives of youth. Problems in this area ranked third in the total list of worries described by students in secondary schools. High-school boys' and girls' time problems are of four types:

- How to budget time wisely
- How to study
- How best to spend leisure time
- How to deal with the time-consuming nature of school subjects

By reference to Figure 2 it is seen that problems in the use of time ranked fourth among boys and third among girls. The difference, however, in the number of times these problems were mentioned by boys and by girls is relatively small, being 1,370 and 1,444, respectively.

The Future. When youth look to the future, they face four types of problems that worry them most. They are concerned about:

- Deciding on a vocation
- Continuing formal education

Succeeding academically

Succeeding vocationally

Boys and girls are almost equally concerned about the future, and it is in this area that vocational and educational guidance have significant roles to play.

Personality. The placement of problems in the category of personality had to be somewhat arbitrary. The types of problems listed in this area are those identified by youth as very personal worries—worries that reveal some of the traits which constitute individuality. The following types of personality problems are the ones which worry youth most:

How to develop a good memory

How to overcome lack of interest

How to develop tolerance, tact, and broadmindedness

How to attract friends

How to develop physical attractiveness

How to develop taste in the selection and wearing of clothes

How to overcome bad temper, selfishness, and jealousy

How to develop character and poise and to overcome self-consciousness and timidity

Part-time Jobs and Money. Boys and girls in secondary schools live in an expense-ridden world. They did not create it; they were born into it. As youth, they have expenses such as fees of one sort and another collected by the school, and they need money for entertainment, for dates, and for an almost endless list of practices and customs. Somehow, also, money and jobs go together; and students are brought face to face with these types of concerns:

How to get enough money to do the things that have to be done

How to get a part-time job

How to earn money and go to school

How to get along on a part-time job

How to spend money wisely

How to save money

How to find suitable part-time work

Youth's Health Worries. Generally speaking, secondary-school youth do not worry very much about the state of their health. This does not mean, however, that young people are unconcerned about healthful living. Put the question of health directly to boys and girls

CHAPTER 2 *Youth's Social Problems*

ADJUSTMENT BEGINS AT BIRTH

The child is born into a social setting. He usually comes into the world as a member of a family. Upon his arrival all his life processes are carried on in a new environment. His basic needs, such as food, physical comfort, and parental attention, are about all he demands in infancy. It is not long, however, before he learns as a dependent person that there are others whom he can attract by one means or another, depending upon what he desires for himself. He cries, he laughs, he becomes angry. If he is hungry, or ill, or uncomfortable, he is likely to cry. When he has a sense of well-being and when people are kind to him, he laughs and plays with others or by himself. When he feels that he has been mistreated, he is hurt and may show his feelings in several ways. Even as a babe in the cradle, the human learns to return a smile, to coo when spoken to affectionately, to shrink when scolded. He has selfish motives, but he is nevertheless learning to behave in the presence of others.

MOBILITY ADDS PROBLEMS IN ADJUSTMENT

When the baby reaches the creeping stage, he pushes back the frontiers of his environment by exploring about the house. He sees things with new perspective. He is attracted to or driven from people, things, and places, depending upon whether he derives pleasure or discomfort by contact with them. The creeping child sees his parents and other members of the household in a new light. He sees members of the family going about the business of preparing food, making ready for bed, reading the newspaper, dressing, cleaning house, and doing many other things incident to living in a home.

Indeed, the creeping child finds himself becoming more and more a member of the family. He sits in his high chair at the dinner table, he goes from one person to another much at his own will, he gets underfoot, he secures kind attention, and he begins to feel keenly the pangs of restraint. It is likely that before a baby can walk he has developed some conception of the world outside. He likes to have his parents take him in arms into the garden and elsewhere; he enjoys going for a ride. Outside the house he sees a great many things that interest him, but few things challenge his attention more than other babies and small children.

WALKING AND TALKING CREATE NEW NEEDS FOR ADJUSTMENT

Upon learning to speak and to walk, the small child can explore his environment still further. He goes alone outside the house. He seeks adventure with other children and with many things. He learns about danger and about many of the interesting places in his immediate neighborhood, and he is never alone when it is possible to find other little people with whom he can play and explore. He thus goes on widening his horizon as a person, enlarging upon his concepts of people and things about him in innumerable ways, developing physically, linguistically, intellectually, and emotionally. He learns about church, shops, gasoline stations, movies, games, insects, birds, flowers, the radio, television, and a host of other things.

As the small child grows, he becomes increasingly able to voice his wants and to express his ideas, and he turns loose a veritable flood of questions in an effort to satiate his seemingly unbounded curiosity. He is faced constantly with problems of adjustment to others. Despite the fact that he is frequently self-assertive, he is permitted to have what he wants or to do what he wants to do. And then one day he observes other children older than himself going to nursery school or to kindergarten, and he is intrigued by their stories of what goes on in these places. He wants to be a part of this new world for children.

AND THE CHILD GOES TO SCHOOL

When the small child enters school, he finds himself one of many children, each as individual as himself. He discovers a new and

strange adult under whose direction he must live for a few hours each day. He may learn for the first time that other people must be considered. He may experience for the first time a form of control that goes beyond and includes others than himself. He may find for the first time that, although he has a certain amount of freedom, there are certain things expected of him, such as sharing with other children, awaiting his turn, remaining in the room until others also are permitted to go outside, being punctual, cleaning up and putting in their proper places materials and playthings he has been using, and asking permission to do this or to play with that.

How the child accepts his first school experience depends a great deal upon the extent to which his parents have widened his social contacts and how well they have prepared him by presenting school as an exciting place. It also depends upon the teacher's understanding of small children and her ability to bridge this gap between home and school in such ways that the child experiences a minimum of tension as a result of his being there. For our purposes here, perhaps the most important thing the competent first teacher realizes is that her most essential task is that of helping the small child to make satisfying adjustments that are necessary to his well-rounded development.

THROUGH ELEMENTARY SCHOOL

As the child progresses through elementary school, he goes through several stages of development physically, emotionally, intellectually, and socially. Characteristically during these years, he has a multitude of interests he wants to explore, does explore, and will explore. He readily asks questions, seeks information openly and frankly until he is cut short. Then he is inclined to go it alone if necessary to satisfy his curiosity.

By the time the child is in upper elementary school, he has been a part of organized group life for several years. He is aware of many demands made upon him by teachers, parents, and his peers. He has explored school subjects, he has participated in a great many activities, and he has formed attitudes of deep significance about people as individuals, about people as groups, and about his own relationships to others.

In his later elementary years, the child usually shows a tendency

to want to identify himself more frequently with smaller groups of children rather than to join just *any group of children in order* to have associates. His interests are now changing, his loyalties are becoming more fixed, and his ideals are beginning to take rather definite form. He is now upon the threshold of that period in life when it is increasingly evident that, personally and socially, he is in a process of growth that pictures him in odd poses now and then. As Meek¹ points out, the child's life is complicated during this period because he is in the process of growing away from those things which are childish and toward those qualities and habits characteristic of the adult pattern of conduct he is striving to attain. He is seen, therefore, taking his steps waveringly at first, but with greater certainty later on. He is on the way

1. From that period of many and fleeting interests to that of greater stability of interests that are fewer in number but vastly more meaningful.

2. From that period when activity is engaged in for its own sake to that marked by much modified adult behavior.

3. From that period of little regard for peer standards and peer status to that of large concern about these in relation to the adult pattern of culture to which he aspires.

4. From that period when it is good enough just to be identified with the crowd to that of greater concern about identification with a select few.

5. From that period in which family status is of little or no consequence in peer relations to that in which family status looms large as a factor in the selection of associates.

6. From that period in which all social activities are informal to that in which social activities are by choice more formal.

7. From that period in which dating is rarely if ever practiced to that which marks regular dating as an acceptable mode of behavior.

8. From that period when boy-girl relations are accorded great emphasis to that in which he looks to preparation for home and family life of his own.

¹ L. H. Meek, *The Personal-Social Development of Boys and Girls, with Implications for Secondary Education*, p. 121, Progressive Education Association, Committee on Workshops, New York, 1940.

9. From that period marked by temporary and transitory friendships to that marked by friendships that are sustained.

10. From that period when all activities are accepted eagerly so long as they provide opportunities for association with others to that when activities are selected in terms of individual interests.

11. From that period in which there is evidenced little insight into behavior, whether his own or others', to that in which behavior is studied the better to make satisfying social adjustments.

12. From that period in which simple rules of conduct are entirely satisfactory to that in which it is necessary to act independently and to be willing and able to bear the consequences of his behavior.

13. From that period in which adult authority is accepted with conflicting emotions to that marked by efforts to share in the lives of adults as an adult.

Guidance workers in the secondary school should bear in mind the fact that social adjustment has been a continuous process in the lives of pupils since infancy.² They should realize also that the process of making social adjustments will continue. The job is by no means finished. It may never be finished, for as individuals enlarge upon their experiences, there is always need for social readjustment.

SOCIAL ADJUSTMENT IS IMPORTANT

The importance of social adjustment can scarcely be overemphasized. In almost every walk of life, for youth and for adults as well, there is scarcely a competency that will not be marked down in value when possessed by one who is socially backward. For youth who are at present young citizens of the community, and who stand upon the threshold of adulthood with an intense desire to cross over it with confidence, social adjustment is a primary concern. What is more, it is an immediate cause of worry, for, as Cole states, "The adolescent years are, pre-eminently, a period of social adjustment."³ There are perfectly good reasons for this state of being which are

² Elizabeth B. Hurlock, *Adolescent Development*, p. 152, McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., New York, 1949.

³ Luella Cole, *Psychology of Adolescence*, p. 211, Rinehart & Company, Inc., New York, 1948.

apparent to the discerning person. Upon entering the period of pubescence, the young person is no longer a child and he is not yet an adult. He is a mixture of child and adult. He is growing away from those things which characterized him as a child and toward those things which characterize the well-adjusted adult.

Without dwelling upon the physical changes which attend the biological maturation of boys and girls, changes that are apparent to everyone, let us move on to a consideration of the matter of social adjustment. Upon reaching the period of pubescence, boys and girls see the opposite sex in an entirely new light. It matters not that they have known one another all through childhood, it matters little that they played together throughout this period of acquaintanceship; they are somewhat strange to one another after they reach the age of pubescence. They each have new desires to associate with the other under circumstances not known in their childhood. This natural desire as they grow older to associate with and to understand the opposite sex leads individuals into a state of self-consciousness never before experienced. Both boys and girls usually are, to a degree unsatisfactory to themselves, awkward when in the presence of the other sex. There are all kinds of manifestations of the emotional tensions resulting from this lack of self-confidence, ranging from the exasperating bully among both sexes to the mild conformist. Failure to make satisfactory adjustments when necessary causes youth to employ a variety of mechanisms. Hamrin and Paulson ⁴ classify them as compensation, identification, escape, rationalization, and defense mechanisms.

A pupil who is out of adjustment with his peers may employ any of numerous compensatory devices. For example, he may compensate for his social shortcomings by devoting himself almost exclusively to study, the chief reward being excellent school marks. Or he may strive to be the leading character in the school play, to prove himself superior in music, or to be a star athlete. Usually the mentally capable pupil who is socially inadequate takes advantage of some opportunity provided by the school to prove his superiority, if not his real worth as a person. He thereby wins the applause of the devotees of the particular activity in which he seeks excellence,

⁴ Shirley A. Hamrin and Blanche B. Paulson, *Counseling Adolescents*, pp. 1-32, Science Research Associates, Inc., Chicago, 1950.

even if he fails to impress the person or the group in whose graces he would be most happy to rest secure.

The pupil who employs the mechanism of identification simply uses the technique of identifying himself with people, with places, with things, and with events unusual enough to cause him to be looked upon with favor because of these associations. The identification mechanism is also frequently expressed by the "my-this, our-that" attitude.

Use of the escape mechanism by a pupil is generally made evident by his refusal to face a situation. He tends to run away from reality; he is afraid. He lacks confidence in himself. He fears the consequences of error, and he tends to magnify the possibility of both error and consequences when he tries to visualize himself as an active participant in social situations. He is therefore regressive in character.

Rationalization is that type of mechanism which causes a person consciously to attempt to justify his acts by inventing reasons for his behavior. Its frequent and unchecked use results in an individual's ultimate refusal to admit, even to himself, that he is capable of error in his ways. The pupil who is given to excessive rationalization soon convinces his associates that they cannot depend upon what he says and that he is therefore not worthy of their serious attention.

There are various forms of defense mechanisms. So varied are they, indeed, that two persons, both defensively inclined, are frequently regarded as totally different types. For example, a pupil may choose to withdraw from the normal activities engaged in by fellow students. He makes no fuss about it; he just does not permit himself to participate because he feels incompetent. He defends himself by exclusion. In contrast, another pupil may feel that he is defending himself by being tremendously aggressive. He does not wait to see how a situation may develop. He does not weigh factors on the balance of human relations. He attacks with the conviction that a good offense always pays. But these "opposites" have in common usually a deep-rooted feeling of social incompetence. It is simply manifested in different ways.

Other evidences of a feeling of social incompetence may also be observed. For example, a pupil may be a negative character. He is against practically everything that is initiated by others. He discounts values which are commonly accepted, and he seems to take

pride in saying so. He minimizes the good qualities of other people. Again, a pupil may compensate by the technique of repression. He consciously refuses to accept ideas or circumstances which are painful to him. He may strongly dislike other people, a characteristic which may be evidence of a repressed fear of them. In any case, the act of repression is a device for relegating the rejected ideas, or circumstances, or persons, to the unconscious mind, where, in combination with others, they become strong influences upon behavior.

Still another pupil in secondary school may find that conformity is a means of escaping what he feels might otherwise be an uncomfortable degree of self-consciousness.⁵ Such a pupil is likely to "go along with the crowd" whether he feels that it is proper to do so or not. He is generally the "it's okay by me" type. He cultivates facility in behaving snobbishly, in showing pleasure or displeasure, depending upon his appraisal of the consensus of the group with which he desires affiliation. The prize he seeks is peer status, and he is usually willing to pay not only the price of admission but the dues as well.

MOST PEOPLE USE COMPENSATORY MEASURES

It is seriously to be doubted that anyone could possibly be so well adjusted as to be devoid of any of the traits which necessitate the use, at one time or another, of compensatory measures. So long as man's genius is permitted to flourish, so long as the biological struggle persists, so long as there is conflict between social forces, so long as the human being is able to seek new experiences, social adjustment is necessary. Life itself is a continuum of becoming unadjusted and of reestablishing equilibrium by a process of readjustment.⁶ And there are usually a sufficient number of novel situations to which everyone has to adjust to call forth, at least in milder forms, measures of compensation which may be needed only temporarily. It seems reasonable, therefore, to suggest that a major aim of the school and of all guidance personnel might well be that of helping young people achieve personal and social equilibrium that will permit them to make many minor adjustments almost if not wholly unconsciously,

⁵ Hurlock, *op. cit.*, pp. 177-178.

⁶ L. Thomas Hopkins, *Integration, Its Meaning and Application*, pp. 2-19, Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., New York, 1937. See also Fred C. Ayer, *Trends in the Field of Integration*, University Cooperative Society, Austin, Tex., 1934. (Mineographed.)

and to maintain a quality of balance that would demand the weighing of factors, the application of reason, to situations which when acted upon emotionally and without reason might well result in loss of equilibrium to a harmful degree. A succession of disturbing forces, each tending to increase the period of disintegration of an individual, may have serious consequences ranging all the way from social isolation to insanity or to suicide.

Granting that most people *seem* to get along fairly well, there appears to be growing evidence of the need for a degree of intelligent personal and social adjustment and adaptation among the young—evidence in terms of the increasing numbers of juvenile delinquents and cases of mental illness, to consider only those who are given public notice in the courts and by commitment to institutions. Add to these the great numbers who by reason of various circumstances escape public attention, and the most pessimistic estimate might appear more realistic. It follows, of course, that there is no reliable means of estimating the loss to humanity in terms of individual happiness, productivity, and acts of good will which results from inability to make satisfactory adjustments to social life.

YOUTH'S SOCIAL WORRIES

Basically, young people who reach secondary-school age have many character and personality traits and ideals that have developed during the period of infancy through childhood. For the most part, they have a good sense of fairness, they are fundamentally just, their ideals are commendable, they are decent, and they can be depended upon. They are trustful and trustworthy. Upon emergence into the period of self-consciousness, boys and girls discover that human relationships are not as they had always thought them to be. All phases of home, school, and community life appear different. Accordingly they begin looking at themselves in relation to others in ways that are new to them. They see adults and youth alike doing all sorts of things, from the sordid to the blessed, and they wonder about the roles they themselves should play in life. They find that to be a member of the total school population is no longer satisfying. Rather, they desire to be identified with smaller groups. But what groups? How does one know or learn how to make intelligent

choices? How does one know how to behave in a complex of social forces that consistently challenge values and beliefs?

It is easy to understand why high-school boys and girls worry about problems that must be solved if they are to make satisfactory social adjustments. But to understand more clearly the nature of youth's social worries, it is better to let them speak for themselves. It was shown in Chapter 1 that boys and girls in secondary school worry more about problems in the area of social adjustment than they do about any other type of difficulty. Figure 3 on page 26 reveals the types of social problems about which secondary-school pupils worry most, according to age and sex.

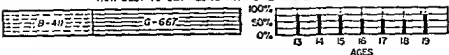
The reader should be reminded that the 4,665 references to social problems about which youth worry most constitute almost 25 per cent of all the worries listed by 4,957 students representing forty-five secondary schools. It should also be remembered that about 91 per cent of the total number of pupils who listed their most urgent problems were in the age groups fourteen to seventeen, inclusive.

Turning again to Figure 3, it is believed that its most striking features are the types of social problems about which boys and girls worry, the total frequency with which each of these types of problems is mentioned, and the fact that girls seem generally to worry more than boys about social problems of all types. Let us examine more in detail each of the several types of social problems youth are concerned about.

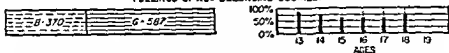
How Best to Get Along with Girl or Boy Friends. This type of social problem was mentioned 411 times by boys and 667 times by girls, making a total of 1,078 times it was listed. Although this problem has a boy-girl percentage distribution of 38 and 62, respectively, the difference is not so disparate except between boys and girls at ages thirteen, fourteen, and fifteen. Girls at these ages express concern about getting along well with their peers almost three times as often as do boys, while youth above these ages express much more nearly the same degree of interest in satisfactory peer relationships. It should be no surprise to discover that girls in the thirteen- to fifteen-year age bracket express greater social concern than do boys of the same ages. Biologically, girls usually mature approximately a year earlier than boys, and this difference in rate of maturation is reflected in girls' attitudes about friends, about social functions, and about themselves in relation to all phases of social life. Again, these

Developmental Guidance in Secondary School

HOW BEST TO GET ALONG WITH GIRL AND BOY FRIENDS



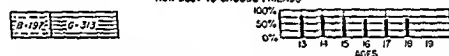
FEELINGS OF NOT BELONGING SOCIALLY



HOW TO ENTERTAIN FRIENDS



HOW BEST TO CHOOSE FRIENDS



HOW BEST TO GET INFORMATION AND MAKE DECISIONS ABOUT LOVE AND MARRIAGE



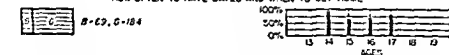
PROBLEMS IN RECREATION



CLOTHING AND SOCIAL EASE



HOW OFTEN TO HAVE DATES AND WHEN TO GET HOME



HOW BEST TO MEET PEOPLE



FIG. 3. Distribution of 4,667 references to nine types of social problems about which youth worry most, by sex (left), and percentage ratios of responses of girls to boys, by age (right).

younger girls are seemingly more seriously interested than boys in group affiliations, club memberships, and dates. The problem of status is of much more concern to them.

It matters less that there are differences in the extent to which boys and girls express concern about getting along well with one another than the fact that this is the chief social worry of both. Both sexes are concerned, and it may be that boys generally are a little more reluctant to reveal certain types of worries than are girls. In any event, to read a list of their problems as youth state them is much the best means of understanding them. Following are the ways boys and girls in secondary school state their problems in getting along well with other young people.

I have trouble making and keeping boy and girl friends, and it worries me a lot. [Girl, 17]

I am still very uncertain about how to act around boys, and I want to get along with them. [Girl, 16]

Most boys my age want girl friends, but I don't know how to get along with them as I should. [Boy, 16]

I can't seem to get along very long at a time with my boy and girl friends. Boys my age are no fun, and girls my age don't seem to get along. [Girl, 14]

Kids my age are left out because younger girls can't go out anywhere, and girls my age go with the big boys. [Boy, 15]

I get along better with boys than girls, and I'd like to have more girl friends. [Girl, 15]

My problem is getting along with girl friends. We don't seem to understand each other. [Boy, 17]

It worries me that girls my age don't seem to have friends—not many at least. The boys my age don't care anything for us, and they're silly. And older boys and girls don't want us around. [Girl, 13]

Making and keeping girl and boy friends is my biggest worry. [Boy, 16]

I guess girls are the most jealous people on earth. They are jealous if you try to have girl friends, and they're jealous if you have boy friends. I'd like to have friends, boys and girls, too, but I find it hard to do. [Girl, 17]

I really believe that kids make a mistake in going steady so much while they are in high school. It keeps them from having more good friends—I mean girl and boy friends. This worries me. [Boy, 16]

These typical statements indicate at once the precise nature of youth's worries about getting along with friends and the seriousness

with which they face this type of problem. Youth are inclined to be matter-of-fact. They value friendships, but it is obvious that they do not understand one another and themselves in relation to the group. But the problem of how best to get along well with girl and boy friends is not a discrete worry. Rather, the several types of social problems about which young people are inclined to be most disturbed are intimately related. This will be more and more obvious as others are examined.

Feeling of Not Belonging Socially. Reference to Figure 3 shows that a considerable number of young people in secondary school have the feeling of not belonging socially. This type of problem has a frequency of 370 for boys and 587 for girls. Here again girls seem to worry more than boys. Of the total of 957 times this type of problem was listed by youth, the girls accounted for 61 per cent and the boys 39 per cent. On the other hand, boys are somewhat more inclined than girls to shrug off social rebuff without making a fuss. It would not be proper, though, to infer that boys are substantially less hurt by the feeling of not belonging socially. Observe how young people write of this type of social worry.

How can I be accepted socially? I've been classed as an introvert. [Boy, 17]

I am not a sorority girl and the higher class boys, being in fraternities, won't go with a girl who isn't in a sorority. This worries me. [Girl, 16]

I am not included in social events, and I feel left out and it worries me. [Boy, 16]

I have not been elected to certain social clubs in our school, and it leaves me out socially. [Girl, 15]

I just don't seem to belong with the kids in my group, and it bothers me. Is there anything I can do? [Boy, 15]

My biggest problem is a slight feeling of being discriminated against because I have not been taken into any of the three social clubs that run our school. [Girl, 16]

Girls my age are left out socially. We don't know what to do, and nobody seems to want to help us. [Girl, 13]

To be fourteen is no good. We don't belong socially. [Boy, 14]

Socially you are either in or out. Something's wrong when so many of us feel that we have to go on bluffing. Why can't we have a little help so we don't have to go on feeling we don't quite belong? [Boy, 17]

Girls my age don't belong in high school. There is no place for us socially. [Girl, 18]

I still worry because I've made such a chump of myself so many times in high school because I never did know how to behave so I would be accepted socially. Kids need help with such things while they are growing up. [Boy, 18]

No one ever looks my way. I just don't seem to belong to any group no matter how hard I try. [Boy, 15]

The feeling of not belonging socially is thus expressed by youth. The many statements of this type of worry, typified so well by those just quoted, leave some very real impressions. First of all, there exist in many secondary schools certain organized groups which a considerable number of students look upon as being the chief cause of their being "left out" socially. A second impression is that younger members of the secondary-school population feel too frequently that they are not socially acceptable. Their problems in social adjustment are trying. *Circumstances contribute in varying ways to this feeling* among boys and girls, but the end results are the same. A third impression one gets from reading students' statements of their own social worries is that they want help. They admit their need for assistance, and many of them wonder why they never receive help in developing the social know-how required for easy, happy relationships in their age groups.

How Best to Entertain. The third-ranking type of social problem about which secondary-school youth worry is that having to do with entertaining friends. Boys reported this problem 202 times. Girls reported it 373 times. As will be seen presently, young people tire of going out for commercial entertainment. Both boys and girls like to have friends in their homes on occasions. But they want their guests to have a good time while visiting them. *Being a good host or hostess is the ambition of many young people.* It is a worthy ambition, one which they need assistance in achieving. Both boys and girls worry about entertaining their dates, and they express themselves quite clearly on these matters.

I like to have friends in, but I don't know how to entertain them so they will have a good time. [Boy, 16]

My problem is being able to entertain a mixed group. [Girl, 16]

Another problem I have is finding out how to entertain my girl friend. [Boy, 15]

How can a girl have a mixed party and see to it that all the kids have a good time? [Girl, 17]

I'd like to have friends in my home more often if I knew how to entertain them. My folks can't help me much, and I wonder if there is anything the school could do for me. [Boy, 17]

I like to have my friends come to my home once in a while. I can entertain girls all right, but my parties are flops when I have boys and girls together. This worries me, and I need help. [Girl, 14]

I believe a boy should know how to entertain his friends the same as girls. Now my problem is this: I get tired of going all over town with my date and other kids trying to find something to do. It's boring and expensive. I'd like to entertain them at home, but I'm embarrassed when I do because I don't know how well enough. A lot of fellows feel the same way I do. I asked the principal of our school if he could help me, and he just said invite them over and let them alone and they'll do what they want to. That won't work. [Boy, 16]

I worry about not being able to entertain my friends. I think we girls could make life a lot easier for our boy friends if we knew more about entertaining in our homes. Then they wouldn't think that they *had* to find some place exciting to take us all the time. It isn't fair to them, and we all get tired of chasing around looking for thrills. [Girl, 16]

To whom, indeed, shall young people turn for assistance in order to learn something of the skill required in entertaining their friends? It is perhaps a sad commentary upon the home, but it is both implicit and explicit in youth's statements that they must often turn elsewhere for assistance if they are to get help at all. Nor is the school blameless. It, too, has failed to meet a very important obligation to youth. We venture the suggestion that to help boys and girls become skilled in the entertainment of their friends is an important phase of guidance and instruction which no school can afford to neglect.

How Best to Choose Friends. It has been said that youth at this age are no longer content just to be with people. Their interests are deepening. They are more critical of the behavior of their fellows and of their own behavior. They are now estimating their own ideals, likes and dislikes, interests, and attitudes. The application of such personal criteria quite naturally limits the field, as it were, with the result that choice of friends was mentioned 510 times as a worry among youth in secondary school. They typically express this type of concern in the following ways.

How can I choose friends I can trust? [Girl, 15]

I never know whether or not I have chosen the right friends. How can I go about it? [Boy, 15]

One of my greatest problems is trying to be sure of choosing the right friends in high school. [Girl, 16]

Being sure I am going with the right crowd is one of my most serious problems. [Boy, 16]

I used to think everybody was my friend, but now I know better. How can I know when I have chosen the right friends? [Girl, 14]

I don't know how to choose friends. It seems that I have friends one day and don't the next. This worries me. [Boy, 14]

If I could only be sure of choosing the right friends! I know a lot of others who feel this way. [Girl, 17]

Kids need to be taught how to choose their friends. Most of us would have been happier if we had. I suppose I've made it all right, but trial and error seems to me an awful way to go about choosing your friends. [Boy, 17]

Our parents and teachers tell us that friends are priceless, but no one ever takes the trouble to tell us how to choose our friends, and we pay the price. And what a price! [Boy, 16]

Youth want friends. They need friends. They have not said so in so many words, but they indicate recognition of the fact that friendship at its best is the spiritual bread of life.

Information about Love and Marriage. Again referring to Figure 3, boys and girls in secondary school gave this type of social problem a frequency of 412. Youth are aware that they are growing up. They look forward to maturity when they can become homemakers, and they know that courtship and marriage are the approved steps. They also know, generally speaking, that they are not receiving the information and counsel they need to help them avoid mistakes along the way. But let youth present their own problems.

The love affairs of young people are more often ridiculed than encouraged. This leads to mistakes. Why don't we have information about love and marriage? [Boy, 16]

I would like to know what requirements a boy should have to make a good husband. [Girl, 17]

Why don't older people give us more information about courtship and marriage instead of just heating around the bush? I intend to marry and I don't want my marriage to wind up on the rocks. [Boy, 17]

How can a girl be fairly sure she is making the right choice in marriage? This is a problem for me. [Girl, 16]

We kids need to know a lot more about love and marriage, such as the criteria for choosing a mate. [Boy, 16]

We younger girls need to know what is right in courtship. I intend to marry when I'm older, and I want to have a good time. [Girl, 15]

I'd like to know about courtship and marriage, but I suppose I'm "too young." [Boy, 15]

Why do older people make such a racket about sex education, love, and marriage? I don't mean how to be intimate. That's silly. I mean how to carry on our courtship so that when we marry we can be happy. [Boy, 16]

These statements are clear enough. They need no interpretation. Youth express their need for information about courtship and marriage so concisely that there seems no possibility of their being misunderstood.

Improper Recreational Facilities. Figure 3 also reveals that youth feel a handicap has been imposed upon them by what they believe to be the community's failure to provide adequate recreational facilities. The matter of recreation was singled out 356 times as one of youth's social problems. Here is evidence of the way they regard this type of problem.

When we want to have a school social function we are handicapped by not having anywhere to have it, as we are not allowed to use our gym. [Girl, 15]

I find that there are not enough decent places for kids to go. So we either sit at home or go to the movies, and both get tiresome. [Boy, 14]

Our school takes very little interest in our social affairs, and it worries me that they don't. [Boy, 16]

Here is a *real* problem. Our community tolerates poor movies and honky-tonks, but we kids tire of the movies and are talked about if we go out to the joints. No wonder we have so many parked cars on the roadsides. [Boy, 16]

Recreation is a problem for a boy of sixteen, when he wants to do the right things for amusement and the town he lives in doesn't have adequate facilities due to the neglect of the townspeople in providing these things because of their doubtful value. Couldn't our school board and teachers help us? [Boy, 16]

It is hard for us girls to have nothing to suggest to our dates but poor and costly places of entertainment where we as kids are no consideration. Sure, we go and act thrilled, but we know inside that it's no good. We have too much explaining to do. Why don't our school and our parents

help us to have better social opportunities by giving us places for good, clean recreation? [Girl, 10]

Clothing and Social Ease. The matter of clothing and social ease was also mentioned as a social worry by secondary-school youth. As indicated in Figure 3, this type of problem has a frequency of 320, with boys listing it 149 times and girls 171 times. This appears to run counter to the oft-expressed opinion that boys are little concerned about clothing—that this is chiefly a feminine worry. But young people say:

No matter what I put on I don't feel at ease when I go out. [Boy, 13]

My face burns because of the way I look when I dress to go out somewhere. I think parents overdress their kids. [Girl, 13]

I don't know how to dress so that I feel good when I go to a party. [Boy, 14]

My clothes are nice, I suppose, but I am never sure how I will look when I go out, and it makes me uncomfortable. [Girl, 14]

I always feel stuffy when I dress to go out. I don't know how I should dress. [Boy, 15]

I'd like to know how to dress to bring out my good points without spending too much. [Girl, 15]

I feel ill at ease about my clothing because I can't keep up with the Joneses. [Girl, 16]

Should boys wear something different every time they go out? I can't afford it and it embarrasses me now and then. [Boy, 16]

I'd like to know how to dress simply and well. I am never quite sure of myself about clothes. [Girl, 17]

Why can't high-school girls be sensible about clothing? It places a lot of us in embarrassing positions. [Girl, 16]

I need to know how to select clothes. I'd be happier if I knew. [Boy, 17]

How Often to Have Dates; When to Get Home. Dating is important to youth. They worry, however, about how often they should have dates and about the proper time to report home. But boys do not seem to share with girls worries about such matters to the extent that they express concern about other social problems. Of the 253 times this type of worry was mentioned, boys listed it only 69 times for a percentage of 27. This is as may be expected. In the first place, initiative in date making is usually taken by the boy. He usually makes a date or does not commit himself as an escort, depending upon how he feels about it at the time. In the second place, boys are

inclined to leave the time for returning home from dates to girls. Properly or not, parents generally are not so demanding of sons as they are of daughters. Boys are freer to make their own schedules. But there are boys who worry about correct dating practices and schedules, even if they feel on occasions that they have been outmaneuvered by the young ladies. The following statements bear witness.

How often should one of my age have dates? I don't feel like going out at night several times a week, but different groups of girls hatch up something and then invite us so that we will have to ask them for dates. [Boy, 15]

How often to have dates and when to get home are problems that worry me a lot. [Girl, 15]

I would like to know what would be a reasonable number of dates to have a week, and when to get home from dates. [Girl, 16]

Competition is keen between girls—I mean for dates. I know I have too many dates and I stay out too late at times. But what can I do? [Girl, 16]

Boys ought to hang together more or have an understanding with the girls about dates and hours. We are in a whirl all the time. Too many dates—but you can't be alone. [Boy, 16]

I like to have a date now and then, but girls plan so many parties either you have to be rude or you are left out. And we stay out too late when we have work to do. I think kids need to know how often to have dates and when to get in. [Boy, 16]

Too many dates are boring. Why can't we call a halt and decide how often we should have dates and when we should be home? [Girl, 17]

I worry about dating and getting in at night. I'd like to get some agreement on this. [Boy, 17]

Is there any way to help us plan our social affairs so we won't feel that we have to have a date three or four times a week? [Girl, 16]

Youth in secondary school frequently leave the impression that they must constantly be going somewhere with girl or boy friends. Their expressions of worry about dating and hours, on the other hand, indicate that a goodly portion of them are not happy about the social whirl into which they have been drawn. Even so, they seem to feel rather helpless as individuals to change appreciably their own schedules. They are torn between the desire on the one hand to lessen the number of dates, and the desire on the other hand to maintain status with the group.

How Best to Meet People. The last type of problem to fall specifically in the category of youth's social worries has to do with meeting people. Young people state this problem typically as follows.

I am not sure of myself when I'm introduced to new people. I don't know what to say and it is hard to start a conversation. [Girl, 14]

How is a fellow supposed to act when he is introduced to a new girl? [Boy, 14]

It worries me that I don't know the proper way to introduce boys and girls. It is embarrassing. [Girl, 16]

I'm not at ease when I am introduced to adults. This is a problem for me. [Boy, 16]

How does a girl take the initiative in meeting people without appearing common? [Girl, 17]

Something that worries me is that I don't know how to meet people easily; for example, when you are introduced, or you need to introduce yourself. [Boy, 17]

THUS IT IS SEEN

When youth in secondary school are given the opportunity to state the problems about which they worry most, they place social problems first—problems that have to do with their individual relationships to groups of their peers. Young people worry most about nine types of social problems: (1) how best to get along with girl and boy friends, (2) how to gain a feeling of belonging socially, (3) how best to entertain friends, (4) how best to choose friends, (5) how best to get information and make decisions about love and marriage, (6) how to secure adequate facilities for recreation, (7) how to dress and acquire social ease, (8) how often to have dates and when to get home, and (9) how best to meet people.

It is also readily seen that boys and girls of secondary-school age can state their social problems. They state their worries clearly, even bluntly and incisively, with apparently no attempt on their parts to be cutting in their remarks. Youth present their problems as they see them, with no effort to couch them in language designed to soften the impact of their meanings. Young people speak wholly without rancor.

The descriptions of youth's social worries are revealing in themselves. Not only do we see the nature of their social problems, but

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The descriptions of youth's social worries are revealing in themselves. Not only do we see the nature of their social problems, but

we also see something of the character of the boys and girls who willingly accepted an invitation to describe the problems which concern them most. They want to know what constitutes proper social behavior; they want to know what they can do as individuals to make adjustments that are at once based upon defensible values, and are therefore self-satisfying, and that are acceptable to others among their peers.

Careful examination of the several types of social problems about which youth worry most reveals that each is a segment of the larger problem of adjustment to the peer culture in which they live. The various types of social worries indicate points of stress among young people. These points of stress may therefore be considered ports of entry through which the guidance worker may pass into the good graces of students who need his assistance. But it is essential that a composite view of the intimate relationships between types of social problems and the larger problem of social adjustment be held by the guidance worker. It is precisely because youth do not see these relationships that they frequently have difficulty in making satisfactory social adjustments.

THUS WE CAN SAY

A necessary step in the direction of helping boys and girls in secondary school to solve their social problems has been taken. The identification and description of youth's social worries—worries that tend to persist and to plague young people of every school generation—give convincing evidence of their need for social and personal guidance. That adolescents need guidance in the development of social skills has long been recognized. After having studied this matter for some time Keliher,^{*} for example, was prompted to suggest that one of the dominant concerns of youth is the establishment of personally satisfying relationships with others. Youth have always wanted to know how to be attractive to others, whether of their own or of the opposite sex. The matter of standards in relation to the conduct of social affairs and to individual behavior, the obvious differences in ideals held by parents and by other adults for their own and other people's children, as contrasted with ideas and ideals

^{*} Alice V. Keliher, *Progressive Education Advances*, pp. 50-51, Progressive Education Association, New York, 1938.

governing their own adult conduct, and personal relationships as preparation for marriage are concerns of youth that are probably as old as the institution of family life.

It is also a matter of record that adults have been reluctant to recognize many of youth's deep and important concerns. Consequently, young people have not shared in many worthwhile adult experiences that might have been invaluable for guidance purposes. Recognition that youth need guidance in making social adjustments is splendid, but it would be better if more people not only recognized such a self-evident truth but actively engaged in helping young people more effectively to meet their problems in social adjustment. This is specifically the task of professional personnel in secondary education. It is encouraging that so many youth are aware of their personal-social problems and their need of the help of others. Their willingness and ability to state their social problems give their adult leaders three distinct advantages: first, the advantage which results from knowing specifically the kinds of problems about which youth worry most; second, the advantage which results from youth's open invitation, their earnest plea for assistance; and third, the advantage of being tossed the keys by which they can unlock doors of understanding of individual and group behavior of pupils with whom they are in daily contact at school. Surely, then, it is reasonable to suggest that professional personnel meet young people halfway and even be willing to go the remaining distance in attempts to help them.

THERE ARE OTHER CONSIDERATIONS

Even though social tensions manifest themselves in a great many ways, the pupil who faces problems in social adjustment always feels the effects of tensions as a *whole* person. Every phase and facet of his life is modified, extremely or slightly, depending upon the intensity and the persistence of disturbing forces. Wherever the pupil goes, whatever he does, he as a person reflects the impact of social experiences he has had or wanted to have and the impressions which these have made upon him. He behaves accordingly, and a pupil's behavior speaks volumes to those who understand him as a person. Consequently, a major consideration of the guidance worker should be that of developing an understanding of the significance of

emotions in relation to behavior. But first of all, it seems eminently important to remind personnel workers that there are few if any persons who enjoy a perfect state of emotional health.⁸ Practically everyone has at least minor emotional disturbances from time to time, and a great many people live out long, productive years while maintaining an "adjustment" to life which is chronically neurotic. Oddly enough, these people's state of mental health is seldom noticed.

Second, every condition of mental health is attended by psychological mechanisms.⁹ Certainly no attempt is to be made here to describe all states of mental health and the psychological mechanisms most closely related to each of these. It is suggested, however, that guidance personnel in secondary schools recognize certain signs of good and poor mental health. The following, for example, are some signs to be recognized.

Signs of poor mental health

1. Pupil shows he consistently suffers an inferiority or a superiority complex.
2. Pupil is an incessant seeker of pleasure. His appetite for pleasure seems never to be satisfied.
3. Pupil is an intemperate day-dreamer.
4. Pupil is persistently and offensively aggressive.
5. Pupil spends his energy in a pessimistic world of worry.

Signs of good mental health

1. Pupil shows that he suffers neither an inferiority nor a superiority complex. He accepts himself as a person, he uses his best qualities to advantage, and he is generally satisfied.
2. Pupil takes his pleasures on schedule and in right amounts.
3. Pupil dreams his dreams, takes his flights of fancy, but always returns to the solidity of real values.
4. Pupil has stability which permits him aggressively to seek worthwhile objectives without appearing offensive.
5. Pupil permits himself to worry only when he feels that he is short of information and skill needed to meet a situation, and he hurriedly restores his balance by strengthening his own resources.

⁸ See *America's Health: A Report to the Nation by the National Health Assembly*, Harper & Brothers, New York, 1949.

⁹ Harold S. Driel, *Textbook of Healthful Living*, pp. 62-74, McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., New York, 1949.

Signs of poor mental health

6. Pupil tends to avoid difficulties.
7. Pupil tries to be completely self-effacing.
8. Pupil is negative; he is against practically everything and everybody; he is intolerant.

Signs of good mental health

6. Pupil meets his difficulties with the satisfaction which results from giving one's best, win or lose.
7. Pupil accepts himself at face value and strives to accomplish ever more challenging goals.
8. Pupil is positive; he weighs ideas and values and suggestions, and he gives credit and respect to others; he is tolerant.

Happily for counselors, teachers, and pupils in secondary school, most youth need not be classified as mentally ill, although some definitely are.

A third consideration is the fact that emotional attitudes are most often products of the social environment. Physical illness, of course, can and does contribute to emotional tensions, particularly if the illness is of such nature as to interfere with normal body functions. But this poses no dichotomy, as might appear. Just as certain types of physical illness can contribute materially to the destruction of emotional balance and therefore of healthful attitudes in an individual, unhealthy emotional attitudes developed as a result of living in an unwholesome social environment can play havoc with an individual's physical health. Otherwise, psychosomatic medicine would have no basis in fact. This observation may be made concerning emotional attitudes in relation to youth's problems in personal-social adjustment: The more serious the difficulty in making satisfactory social adjustments, the more pronounced the emotional reactions which are likely to result.

BEHAVIOR IS EMOTION'S WAY OUT

It is not uncommon to hear people refer to pupils as being aggressive, or timid, or happy, or sullen, or inhibited, with little if any real understanding of why they so characterize them or of the deeper meanings of such descriptions. But always youth are described in such ways because of their behavior. Behavior is what is observed when emotions come out. It is through behavior that a great many emotions are released, and emotional release may well be a pupil's

way of trying to find security through adjustment. This is not to say that every emotion immediately finds expression in behavior. This would be action with no thought of consequences, a total absence of inhibition of any nature. The antithesis of this state of being would be complete repression of all emotions, a complete absence of the drives to action without which a human would die.

Secondary-school pupils are not uncivilized. They have been learning behavior ever since they were born. From the wholly selfish point of view of the infant who cries or smiles or has a tantrum to get what he wants, a child learns as he grows older to behave in ways that meet with general approval or with sufficient approval at least partially to satisfy his needs. Rare indeed is the pupil who reaches secondary school feeling that he is a complete failure because of the inability to make any satisfactory adjustments. In the process of growing up, most pupils learn to inhibit certain emotions, such as anger. They learn to suppress certain desires, such as the desire to strike or kick those who make them angry. This calls for developing values that in turn give rise to new expressions of behavior. Simply stated, pupils learn to control their emotions and behavior through the application of intelligence. It is intelligent behavior that guidance aims to develop.

For the most part, then, pupils come to secondary school a rather civilized group. There are deviates of a serious nature, to be sure. In the main, however, these young people are capable of making adjustments to life that will be satisfying to them and satisfactory to society. But some students will need a good deal of understanding; all need help.

EMOTIONS ARE DRIVES TO ACTION

Emotions drive people to action. This statement does not imply that a single aroused emotion will set one off to make love, or to practice the violin, or to study French, or to dig a ditch. Not all the relationships between man's emotional life and his behavior are known, but there is evidence to show that action of even minor significance is the result of a desire to act that is built up and set off by a combination of emotions. Combinations of emotions which drive pupils to action should therefore be understood. Otherwise guidance can be only haphazard at best, and young people are too

important to be subjected to such treatment. It is tragic to hear principals, teachers, and frequently, "counselors" say, "I just can't understand why Jim behaves the way he does." In such circumstances Jim is not likely to understand why they behave as they do, and this mutual lack of understanding is almost sure to produce a climate of feeling so arid that it will not permit the seeds of guidance to sprout, much less to grow and bear fruit.

If Jim's behavior is to be understood, the nature of his fundamental emotional drives to action must be studied. To facilitate such study, Cole¹⁰ classified emotions by placing them in three major categories, as follows: "(1) Anger, jealousy, hatred, and hostility as emotional states of an aggressive character; (2) fear, worry, dread, sorrow, embarrassment, regret, and disgust as inhibitory states; and (3) love, affection, happiness, excitement, and pleasure as joyous states." The extent to which emotions of the sort named in each of these three groupings dominate as drives to action largely characterizes the individual. For example, if Jim is driven principally by such emotions as anger, jealousy, hatred, and hostility, he is almost sure to be known as an aggressive character. Conversely, if Jim's dominant drives are of the emotional nature of fear, worry, dread, sorrow, regret, embarrassment, and disgust, he is almost sure to be called the regressive type. But there are usually shades of all of these evident in the behavior of an individual at one time or another. For example, Joe may have a tendency to aggressiveness somewhat after Jim's manner of behavior, but his aggressive disposition may be tempered by intelligent control of certain emotions and by expressions of still others which give rise to periods of joy seldom if ever revealed by Jim. In any case it is unwise to characterize an individual pupil too hastily. For example, Joe may one day show all the characteristics of an aggressive bully only to be a young man of commendable traits for weeks or months to follow. It would be a great misfortune to judge Joe on his off day, the day his emotional state caused him to step out of character, and perhaps the only day he has really been noticed.

To facilitate further the study of young people's actions, Cole identifies certain basic drives and classifies them as social, emotional, and intellectual. They are listed below.

¹⁰ Cole, *op. cit.*, p. 91.

A. Social Drives

1. Desire to make friends
2. Desire to follow a leader
3. Desire to influence and control others
4. Desire to protect the helpless
5. Desire to seek protection
6. Desire to seek praise
7. Desire to attract and entertain others
8. Desire to surrender oneself
9. Desire to resist coercion
10. Desire to maintain privacy
11. Desire to oppose others
12. Desire to avoid danger
13. Desire to ignore inferiors

B. Emotional Drives

14. Desire to avoid blame
15. Desire to overcome difficulties
16. Desire to defend oneself against others
17. Desire to enjoy sensuous pleasure
18. Desire to relax tension
19. Desire to avoid shame and humiliation
20. Desire to seek thrills
21. Desire to retain possession of what one has
22. Desire to seek sex objects
23. Desire to accumulate possessions

C. Intellectual Drives

24. Desire to acquire facts
25. Desire to think out explanations
26. Desire to organize and build
27. Desire to put things in order
28. Desire to work toward a goal
29. Desire to relate and interpret facts

These drives in combination tend to manifest themselves in behavior as traits, and the adolescent person is seen accordingly. Cole ¹¹ suggests that to understand the youthful person, these traits should be studied in clusters, and she presents four trait clusters by units. They are:

Unit 1. Arrogant, exhibitionist, talkative, boastful, argumentative, conceited, stubborn, pugnacious, tactless, rigid, hostile, ruthless,

¹¹ *Ibid.*, p. 129.

egotistical, acquisitive, blames others, is unkind to inferiors, flatters superiors.

Unit 2. Thoughtful, wise, original, constructive, intelligent, independent, persevering, reliable, mature, planful, analytical, versatile, orderly, cultured.

Unit 3. Naïve, modest, submissive, grateful, tolerant, peaceable, child-like, gentle, self-effacing, self-distrustful, self-dissatisfied, quiet, dependent.

Unit 4. Impulsive, changeable, thoughtless, frivolous, vivacious, foolish, unenquiring, amusing, entertaining.

We now have before us descriptions of social problems about which youth worry most, a consideration of emotions in relation to behavior and as drives to action, and a convenient arrangement of trait clusters which can be used as guides in the study of pupil behavior. It is therefore incumbent upon guidance workers to study carefully these things together in order that they may see the relationships between problems about which young people worry and the behavior of these people in the process of adjustment.

STEPS CAN BE TAKEN

Steps can now be taken to help youth solve their social problems. The suggestions made in succeeding pages are not to be considered as listed in order of importance, with the exception of the first. The important thing is to do something worth while to help boys and girls make social adjustments more easily. Indeed, once a start is made, guidance people will find that a number of processes and activities can and should be taken together. Furthermore, experience will reveal still other things to be done to help youth achieve their own goals and therefore the goals of social guidance.

Step 1: Accept Pupils. The first step, the first major consideration of the guidance worker who proposes to help youth rid themselves of worries about problems in social adjustment, should be that of accepting pupils as they are and of making himself acceptable to individuals and to the group with whom he is to work. He should have no illusions about this. *Status with young people in secondary school has little if any relationship to title or position in the school.*

It must be earned. It would be well for the guidance worker to begin by asking such questions of himself as these: ¹²

Do I think of pupil behavior as being caused?

Do I understand that pupil behavior is something that has been learned, and that adjustment involves additional experiences and more learning before a pupil can be expected to substitute new values and new social skills for the old ones which now cause him worry because they do not fit?

Am I able to accept each pupil emotionally so that none will be rejected by me as hopeless or unworthy of my best efforts?

Am I fully aware that each pupil is a unique individual in his own right, and am I willing to accept him as such?

Do I recognize the fact that in the course of his growing up each pupil faces a series of developmental tasks that are fairly common with those faced by other young people?

Do I possess the information needed to give me a working understanding of the forces that tend to regulate all phases of growing up, including physical and emotional development, motivation, and learning?

Am I able to withhold final judgment of pupils; that is, am I satisfied with tentative judgment that can be sustained by scientifically gathered facts? Am I willing to change my judgment of pupils when they have demonstrated changes in their own behavior?

If the guidance worker can answer each of the foregoing questions affirmatively, he may be reasonably sure that he will be accepted by students. He will understand pupils, and they him—and there must be mutual understanding if the one is to help the other.

Step 2: Take the Whole-school Look. What is said here is based upon the assumption that there is a cumulative-record system in the school showing each pupil's development as completely as possible from the time he entered school to the present, including information about his family and the culture characteristics of the community as a whole as they relate to the personal-social behavior of the pupil. It is also assumed that this body of information is basic, and the step to be suggested presently will supplement it meaningfully and vice versa.

It is important to know the nature and the extent of pupils' prob-

¹² Adapted from *Helping Teachers Understand Children*, pp. 8-11, American Council on Education, Commission on Teacher Education, Washington, 1945.

lems on a school-wide basis. Otherwise the difficulties of individual pupils will be interpreted out of context, thereby causing guidance workers to fail to see them in proper relation to values as interpreted by the group as a whole. The inevitable consequence of failure to see the individual's problems in relation to group problems and to group values is improper conceptualization of basic needs for guidance. This, in turn, results in guidance procedures that are certain to be incongruous in some important particulars. Time should therefore be taken to discover and study on a school-wide basis the problems about which youth worry most.

The unguided, or free-response, technique is an excellent means of discovering pupils' problems on a school-wide basis. This device is recommended particularly for use in schools where guidance is not a fully developed service, and it may be used advantageously from time to time in schools that boast a fairly well rounded guidance program. When using this device, it is suggested:

1. That pupils not be required to sign their names on papers upon which they list the problems about which they worry most. Ask them to give only their ages and sex.

2. That pupils understand the reason they are being called upon to state their problems and the uses that are to be made of the information provided by them.

3. That only those persons who have the very best relationships with pupils and a clear understanding of the purposes and methods involved be delegated to secure youth's problems.

4. That steps be taken as soon as it is practicable to do so to reveal to pupils that the school is making intelligent use of the information provided by them. Secondary-school students are not unlike teachers in that they quickly tire of being called upon to furnish information which, to the best of their knowledge, is seldom or never used in obvious and constructive ways.¹²

Use of the free-response method has such pronounced advantages as these: First, students who might not otherwise be inclined to state their problems will take advantage of anonymity to do so; second, the method provides professional personnel with an over-all view of pupils' problems as seen by youth themselves, thereby furnishing legitimate criteria against which guidance workers may check their

¹² See Chap. 1 for a more detailed discussion of the use of the free-response technique for determining pupils' problems.

own judgment of young people's needs for guidance and the procedures to be used in providing promising guidance services; third, it brings to light information which, when seriously considered with other information and data about pupils, usually shows needs for self-study and growth among professional personnel and for school-wide adjustments that should be made in the interest of efficient guidance.

Step 3: Get Facts about Individual Pupils. Guidance personnel should be fortified by information about pupils to be guided that is as accurate and as complete as possible. This task involves getting the facts wherever it is possible to secure them. But "getting the facts" means more than the mere accumulation of data. In the first place, data should be gathered for specific purposes. In the second place, data must be organized, studied, and interpreted in terms of the uses to which they are to be put within a reasonable period of time. In the third place, data for guidance purposes must be individualized or the individual pupil will tend to lose his identity. It is not suggested that group data are of no importance. They are, for they provide the means of understanding the character of the group of which individual pupils are parts, and they furnish bases for guidance in relation to problems that are common to the group. In the fourth place, guidance workers should be continuously about the business of gathering new data if their information about pupils is to be kept up to date. A datum about a pupil today can be almost literally obsolete and of only historical value a short time hence simply because the pupil changes.

Stressing again the fact that the concept of wholeness, of unity, should undergird guidance and education, pupils' social problems should be studied interrelatedly with all phases of their development. It is therefore necessary to have at hand for study such records as the following:

- A complete record of each pupil's academic progress from the time he entered school to the present
- Objective measures of each pupil's mental qualities, aptitudes, and interests
- A record of each pupil's health and physical development
- A record of each pupil's extraclass accomplishments, and of his special achievements and talents

6. I'd rather not "go steady," but I'm afraid I'll be left out of social events if I don't.
7. I have trouble being accepted socially.
8. I am not included in social events, and it worries me.
9. I am worried because I don't seem to belong to a group.
10. I feel that I am kept out of certain groups and that I am not included because I am not understood.
11. I worry because I don't know how best to entertain my girl friend.
12. I worry because I don't know how best to entertain my boy friend.
13. I would be happier if I knew how to entertain mixed groups so that they will have a good time.
14. I worry because I don't know how to choose friends I can trust.
15. One of my greatest problems is trying to be sure of choosing the right friends.
16. I am worried because I don't know how to choose friends who will remain friends. I have friends a little while and then suddenly they are not friends any more.
17. It worries me not to have any place to suggest to my date that we go but to the movies or to a night club.
18. I am worried because our school takes very little interest in helping us to have nicer social events.
19. A problem for me is how to be sure of making the right choice in marriage.
20. I'd feel much better if I knew what is right conduct in courtship.
21. I am often embarrassed because I don't know how to select and wear my clothes well.
22. I often feel embarrassed about my clothes because I can't afford as many and as good clothes as some others in school.
23. I worry because I don't know how to dress simply and well.
24. I am nearly always uncertain about how I will look when I go out somewhere, and it makes me uncomfortable.
25. I feel that I have too many dates, but I'm afraid I'll be left out if I don't.
26. How often to have dates and when to get home are problems that worry me.
27. Competition between girls for dates is so keen that I know I have too many dates and stay out too late.
28. Too many dates bore me.
29. Boys should stick together more or have some understanding with girls about dates and hours. Girls plan too many things just to get dates, and it worries me.
30. I worry because I seldom have a date.
31. I am not sure of myself when I am introduced to new people.
32. I would like to know how to go about meeting new people.
33. It embarrasses me because I don't know how to introduce boys and girls properly.
34. I would like to know how to introduce boys and girls of my own age to adults.
35. I am not at ease when I am introduced to adults.

That's all, unless you have some social worries that are different from those you have just read. If you have, write them in the space below.

Name_____

P.S.: As you know, your paper will be held *strictly confidential*. You will soon be given opportunity to indicate which problems you would like to have discussed in your homeroom and which ones you would like to discuss privately with someone. *But your name will not be mentioned* in connection with discussions in your homeroom. And if you would like to know more about problems that worry other students, ask your counselor or your homeroom teacher about them.

There may be some pupils, particularly among the older ones, who prefer not to sign their names after having checked their problems. In this event, it is much better not to make an issue of the matter. It is much more satisfactory to have the list returned unsigned than to create doubt on the part of a single student. The guidance worker should face this matter in the event of its occurrence with dignity and poise, and with the genuine respect for students necessary ultimately to remove doubts. After all, some pupils may never have had the experience of considering with a counselor or with a teacher their personal problems in an atmosphere of confidence and mutual understanding. Take the long view for the sake of these and future generations of secondary-school pupils who will come needing guidance.

SUGGESTIONS TO THE TEACHER-COUNSELOR

Many of the social problems about which youth worry lend themselves well to group-guidance situations. Furthermore, the school that accepts guidance as one of its major functions will be organized to provide time for this important service.¹⁵ The suggestions appearing in succeeding paragraphs are made, therefore, on the assumption that the teacher-counselor has time to meet his responsibilities as a guidance worker.

The suggestions which follow should not be followed slavishly. They are only suggestions, not stunts to turn the trick of guidance. There are two primary reasons for the suggestions to teacher-counselors to be offered presently. First, they are consistent with good practice. Second, experience has shown that many teacher-counselors

¹⁵ See Chaps. 9 and 11.

fail to become productive guidance workers simply because they do not have a few practical suggestions to get them started, the result being feelings of fear and hopelessness. Experience has also shown that when teacher-counselors are provided with a working knowledge of pupils' problems and a few helpful suggestions they can go forward with greater confidence that they are accomplishing something worth while. In guidance no less than in the closely allied field of curriculum, there is little likelihood of success unless those at the job level actively participate in its development. The teacher-counselor who tries out a suggestion and finds it useful is practically certain to discover that the experience will give rise to other promising procedures.

The teacher-counselor should accept the fact that youth have social problems because they have not learned social behavior that is satisfying to them. He should be sympathetic to the fact that, as Fleming¹⁸ declares, successful maturation during adolescence requires progress in four areas. First, each adolescent must learn to accept himself. This implies adjustment to his appearance and to his capacity. Second, each youth must learn to accept himself in relation to other youth. He must learn that his own status with a group is likely to vary from time to time. Third, he must learn to accept others. And acceptance of others implies recognition of their differences as well as knowledge that their behavior is likely to be unpredictable at times. Fourth, each must learn to accept others in relation to himself. He will then realize the relativity of friendship as well as discover ways by which he may make himself more acceptable to other young people.

There are several interesting implications to be drawn from the preceding paragraph. The emphasis is upon social learning, beginning with the individual pupil's acceptance of himself as a person. He should have no illusions about his own physical appearance, nor should he be misled by over- or underestimating his own capacity. Each pupil needs to learn to accept his physical appearance with the knowledge that it is his, that necessarily he must live with it, that no matter how hard he tries he will not be able to exchange it for another, and that appearance per se is not a sole criterion of happiness. Each pupil needs to learn that the development and applica-

¹⁸ C. M. Fleming, *Adolescence, Its Social Psychology*, p. 143, Routledge and Kegan Paul, Ltd., London, 1919.

tion of his own best qualities as a social being in pursuit of happiness is of major importance, and he needs information and guidance that will assist him in fairly estimating his capacity for adjustment.¹¹

A pupil's acceptance of himself in relation to a group is of singular importance to social adjustment. He needs to learn that once in good standing with a given group does not necessarily mean always in good standing with the same group. He needs to learn that just as he changes his ways of thinking, his sense of relative values, and therefore his behavior, others among his contemporaries also change. He realizes then that the status of others in relation to a group may be as variable as his own, and that each has similar problems of self-realignment with the group or of establishing status with another group, whichever promises the greater social reward. He may also recognize then that acceptance by and elevation to leadership within a given group are nearly always associated with certain rather specific personal and social qualities.

A pupil's acceptance of himself as a person and his acceptance of himself in relation to a group provide the bases for learning to accept other people. He is able to perceive that his several acquaintances differ in a variety of ways, and that each is likely to change his behavior from time to time. What is more, the pupil who perceives these things is able also to understand that changes in ways of thinking and in ways of behaving are prerogatives which should be accorded others as well as reserved for his own benefit. He learns, therefore, to accept changes in the behavior of his contemporaries with sufficient emotional integrity to permit him to view the matter intelligently rather than with a feeling of having been suddenly cast away by those whom he thought were his always to possess as intimate friends.

It has been shown that youth's social worries derive basically from a desire to be accepted by their peers, and that the task of adjustment is complicated for them at times because of growth factors which are perfectly normal but which frequently result in changes in values and ideals and therefore in behavior. Interestingly enough—and this is significant—a pupil of secondary-school age usually observes change in the behavior of others more readily than

¹¹ It is discouraging to observe that in many schools the social activities of the "most respectable people" seem to fix in the minds of teachers standards of behavior to which all pupils should conform, despite individual differences among pupils.

he recognizes change in his own behavior. He especially notices change in those with whom he has been on rather intimate terms. As a consequence he may feel somewhat or greatly distressed when changes in other boys and girls cause them to have less interest in him. Even if changes in a pupil's own sense of values and in his own behavior cause him to lose interest in others, he is generally still inclined to think it is others who have changed rather than he. It is nearly always "the nther fellow" who changes most.

The Teacher-Counselor Has Objectives. It is suggested that the teacher-counselor approach the task of assisting youth in removing their social worries with objectives such as these in view:

1. To help each youth understand himself progressively as a person to the end that he is able to recognize his strengths and limitations and to be able to accept his physical appearance.

2. To help each student understand that changes in ways of thinking and therefore in ways of behaving that occur in him and in all other young people are a normal phenomenon of growth, and to help him understand some of the inevitable consequences of change as related to his own status in group life.

3. To help each pupil understand the necessity of accepting changes in others' behavior toward him, and in his own behavior toward others, as essential steps in the pursuit of satisfying social experiences which are requisite to happiness.

4. To help each pupil understand that friendship is relative, and to help him discover ways of making himself acceptable to others.

The suggestions which follow are consistent with the social problems about which youth worry most and with the objectives just named. They will be most beneficial when the teacher-counselor gives due attention to appropriateness and to timing. An activity that is appropriate is one that is selected for use in the accomplishment of a desired objective. It fits the purpose in view. But an activity, however good, represents misspent effort unless it is used at the right time. *Timing involves readiness on the part of both teacher-counselor and pupils.* From the point of view of the teacher-counselor, his own relations with pupils represent a criterion of timeliness. Unless there exists between teacher-counselor and pupils a mutual feeling of respect and confidence, guidance as such might just as well be forgotten and attention turned to other matters. The

teacher-counselor who plans his work with these things in mind will be rewarded.

About Getting Along with Girl and Boy Friends. This is a concern of many students in secondary school. The teacher-counselor who shows evidence that he is aware of this problem and that he appreciates the importance of pleasant relationships will find the following suggestions helpful as implements of guidance. Pupils usually respond favorably to questions and activities such as these:

1. How does a genuinely friendly person behave?
2. What are some of the reasons why friendly people behave as they do?
3. Suggest that boys write a list of characteristics they would like their (a) girl friends and (b) boy friends to possess, and that girls make similar lists. Suggest that their lists be dropped unsigned into a covered box labeled "This Will Start a Discussion," or "Put Your Ideas in This Hopper," or "We Want to Know," or "Write It Down and Put It Here," or any other suitable title. From the several papers turned in by students, a master list with variants may be prepared for study by all students. Further discussion will then likely be desired.
4. Suggest that the group might have a "Rate Yourself" check list made up from the characteristics agreed upon in (3) above.
5. Why do students who have been good friends sometimes "grow tired" of one another?
6. A panel may be arranged to discuss the topic, "Once a friend, always a friend."
7. What are the implications of the statement, "Friendship is a two-way matter"?

About Feeling Left Out. A considerable number of boys and girls in secondary school feel "left out," that they do not belong socially. As often as not they seem to feel that it is because of others that they do not "belong," that they are being chastised for sins they have not committed, that they are as "eligible" as any one else. In dealing with this type of problem, the teacher-counselor should be aware that tensions resulting from a feeling of not belonging socially can easily cause unpleasant emotional outbursts. He should be certain that he is familiar with practices in his own school community relative to social groupings, including social clubs to which only boys or girls belong and those whose membership include both boys

and girls. It would be well to know the membership of the several organizations.

Discussions and activities bearing upon this type of social problem must be steered away from personalities and toward understanding of the reasons for the existence of groups, formally or informally constituted, and of oneself in relation to them. With this in mind, the following suggestions should be helpful.

1. Enlist pupils' aid in identifying "groups" of whatever nature that exist in the school community. Discuss these groups with regard to the purposes and to the general character of their members.

2. Suggest that those who belong to a group (they need not necessarily name it) write down the reasons that they belong. Pupils may place their papers, unsigned, in a receptacle from which they may be collected.

3. Pupils may find it worth while to discuss the question, "What seem to be the basic reasons that people often desire to be identified with a certain group, or with more than one organized group?"

4. Why are several organized groups usually to be found in a school community, each group having basically the same purposes as the others?

5. What information should one have about himself and about a group he thinks he might want to join before identifying himself with it?

The teacher-counselor may find it advisable to read to his group of students Russell Lynes's article, "The New Snobism."¹⁸ This article is cleverly written, and it is sure to set the stage for further good-natured discussion that may prove of great benefit to pupils.

Entertaining Friends. The matter of entertaining friends "so that they will have a good time" is an accomplishment looked upon with favor by young people in secondary school. Indeed, it is an accomplishment which should be regarded with favor by adults as well. Students' expressed need for assistance in learning how to entertain their friends warrants an effort to help them. It is a most desirable social skill. The teacher-counselor may therefore find it helpful to:

1. Explore with his pupils several of the more specific aspects of the problem of entertaining friends, such as the occasion (Halloween, Christmas, the night after the big game of the athletic

¹⁸ *Harper's Magazine*, 201 (1206):40-50, November, 1950.

season, just "having the kids in," etc.); the type of party (dinner, dance, games, scavenger hunt, etc.); the guests (boys and girls, all girls, or all boys).

2. Explore with pupils the desirability of having parents, recreation leaders, or other adults come to school to discuss with them ways of entertaining young people which were successful in "their day." Frequently this technique yields satisfactory returns.

3. Consider the possibility of having an occasional party at school for the express purpose of providing young people with opportunities to plan and enjoy a variety of social experiences together. It is suggested that nothing new be introduced at such functions that is difficult to master; such a practice, which is a common error, causes some pupils to feel socially inadequate. It may be desirable, of course, to ask some boys and girls to demonstrate a new activity which requires skill not possessed by the majority. By keeping the demonstration short, many pupils will want to learn to participate in the activity who might otherwise lose interest and wander away. It would be well to follow up the party with an opportunity for pupils to learn activities and social skills to which they have been introduced. This can be done in the homeroom or in some other convenient place during the homeroom period.

Choice of Friends. Having discussed the matter of getting along with girl and boy friends, students should have a clearer understanding of their own behavior and the behavior of others in relation to friendship. This is important, too, because reference to youth's statements of this type of problem indicates that they rather imply that choosing friends is somewhat like choosing a dress or a suit from many dresses and suits, all hung neatly in a row for inspection and approval or rejection. Of course, students know that choosing friends is not such a simple matter, but they are generally unaware of a number of considerations involved in what is referred to as "how best to choose friends." The teacher-counselor may therefore approach this problem by discussing with pupils such questions and issues as the following:

1. What are the ways one can tell that he has a sufficient number of friends?
2. What are some of the ways one can tell he has too few friends?
3. Can friends be distinguished from, say, people one enjoys being associated with in a group now and then? How?

4. Are there limits beyond which one cannot safely go in taking even his closest friend into his confidence without running the risk of losing that friend's respect? What are some of the "caution" signs?

5. Discuss this statement: "Gossip among students is a harmless pastime."

6. Discuss this statement: "To make a confidant of a friend is to place too much responsibility upon him."

7. Suggest to pupils that each write a list of characteristics of three types of people he knows well: (a) a boy or a girl who seems to have anyone he or she wants as a friend from among other boys and girls, (b) a boy or a girl who seems to have enough friends but who seldom has the same friends long at a time, (c) a boy or a girl who seems to have few if any friends. Names should not be signed to pupils' lists. *In no circumstance should pupils name the persons they describe.* From these impersonal lists, master lists of characteristics of each of the three types of students can be prepared for study and discussion. Proper conduct in group guidance will very likely stimulate some pupils to seek individual counsel on matters having to do with the choice of friends.

8. What are some of the signs that tell you that one is too anxious to have friends? What do such signs mean?

9. Can one just go out and select his friends, or is it necessary to work hard to make himself acceptable to others so that he will not be "taken in" before he is sure it is the right thing to do?

Recreation and Social Adjustment. It was shown in the first part of the present chapter that secondary-school youth recognize the importance of recreation in their social life. They evidence particular concern about what seems to them a lack on the parts of their own communities to provide suitable recreational facilities for young people. One of their chief thrusts is against commercial entertainment which becomes "boring," or is too expensive, or does not measure up to their standards of decency, or displeases them because of a combination of all of these.

The teacher-counselor may consider with his pupils the matter of recreation as a social worry in several ways. Here are a few suggestions.

1. By securing the cooperation of his group, he can discover the recreational needs of his pupils as they see them.

2. Discussions of pupils' needs for recreation will reveal to them the value of learning to do still other things than those they are ordinarily accustomed to consider recreational activities.

3. The counselor may enlist the cooperation of school authorities, parents, and community officials in a study of the community's recreational facilities. With proper guidance, pupils can do well as participants in conducting such a study. A study of this type should aim to discover such relevant facts as (a) the nature of facilities especially designed for recreational uses; (b) the location of such facilities; (c) accessibility to the population; (d) usability, including possible uses to which the facilities might be put other than those for which they were specifically designed; (e) availability for use by pupils of secondary-school age; (f) costs, if any, to individuals or to groups of pupils; (g) the nature and amount of supervision required or provided; (h) the extent to which pupils make use of available facilities. (Note: School buildings and grounds should be included in the study of community recreational facilities.)¹⁹

Courtship and Marriage. The teacher-counselor should fully realize that boy-girl relationships in group situations and in courtship are in themselves preparation for marriage. He should realize further that satisfactory adjustment of young people among their contemporaries is at least a partial guarantee that pupils will make progress toward an emotionally mature adulthood necessary to happiness in marriage and in all other phases of life. But there are many factors that affect adjustment. There should be full awareness that youth in secondary school live in a world of circumstances, some good, some bad, but all destined to leave impressions, to establish or to fail to establish tenable social values, to mold behavior, and to affect the emotional life of each pupil in ways that lead ultimately to reasonable happiness or to unmitigated disillusionment and to other extremes. Involved, therefore, are home, school, and community. Of these, home and school are of paramount importance.

Perhaps no more dramatic examples could be given of the effects of home and family life upon the present and future happiness of

¹⁹ Good suggestions in studying various phases of school and community may be found in Merle R. Sumpton, *How to Conduct a Citizen's School Survey*, Prentice-Hall, Inc., New York, 1932.

young people than those which affect their own preparation for homemaking. Homes that are characterized by persistent and unresolved friction between parents and between parents and children, homes that are practically devoid of the affection to which every child is entitled, seem to contribute directly to forms of delinquency ranging from those that are mild in nature to those that are personally and socially destructive in character. As an illustration of the latter effect, a San Francisco clinic studied two thousand cases of promiscuity among girls. It was found that such extreme cases of delinquency are usually the result of deep frustrations caused by problems to which these young people saw no reasonable solution. Generally speaking, these girls came from homes where love was missing, homes characterized by continuous strife among their members. It was also found that these girls were consequently lonely, practically friendless as youth in school. Moreover, they admitted receiving nothing but sordid displeasure from their acts, and they despised themselves and the circumstances leading to their own social disgrace.²⁰

It is not suggested that the school can compensate fully for the shortcomings of the home. But it is possible for the school to provide social-learning experiences through guidance that may very well spell the difference between social delinquency and reasonable happiness for some pupils. To state the case negatively, the school can do no less than try to help produce a generation of people not just like the present one. What is more, such guidance will help to enlarge upon the possibilities for happiness of pupils coming from homes of the very best quality.

In view of pupils' desire for information about proper conduct in courtship and for criteria for the selection of a husband or wife, it is suggested that the teacher-counselor:

1. Provide opportunities for students to indicate what they believe to be correct behavior in boy-girl relations. Properly approached, the majority of them will respond to the suggestion that they state their beliefs and place them unsigned in the receptacle provided for such purposes. What the girls believe and what the boys believe about correct behavior in boy-girl relations may then be studied and discussed by the group.

²⁰ Howard Whitman, "What Makes Good Girls Bad," *This Week Magazine*, Apr. 10, 1919.

2. Provide opportunities to discuss parent-child relationships, and the responsibilities of parenthood.

3. Ask a specialist in home and family relations to meet with the group and discuss social-cultural background, racial background, religion, age at marriage, and other factors which appear to influence success in marriage.

4. Ask a competent physician to recommend suitable reading materials and other sources of information about themselves and their relations with the opposite sex. It would be well also to invite such a person at appropriate times to discuss with pupils some of the more delicate matters relating to courtship and marriage, permitting him to decide what he would like to discuss with a mixed group and what he would like to present to boys and girls separately. In any case, he should be completely familiar with the nature of youth's worries about courtship and marriage and thus be fortified against the tendency to force upon young people information and ideas he thinks they should have.

It goes without saying that provision should be made for individual counsel with students on their problems of courtship and marriage. This is frequently a very personal problem for young people. It is also well to remember that competency and great aplomb are required of those who are to provide guidance and counsel on this type of problem.

The Matter of Clothing. Youth's worries about clothing as a factor related to feeling at ease socially are described in the first part of this chapter. It may be that pupils' worries about clothing are over-emphasized as a result of a feeling of social incompetence. Even so, it is not wise to belittle students' concerns about dress, which are serious problems to them. Nevertheless, they need also to learn that clothing alone will not make a well-adjusted, popular person of a poorly adjusted, colorless, and therefore unpopular individual. Youth need fully to realize that clothing can only cover the person, albeit becomingly, but never the personality.

1. It is suggested that the teacher-counselor relate problems of clothing and social ease to other problems that are social in nature, particularly those having to do with getting along well with others. It would be well to consider again the characteristics of the attractive person, observing in the process the place clothing occupies

among the various qualities that make people attractive to others.

2. The teacher-counselor should enlist the services of men and women among the faculty who are able to give boys and girls helpful suggestions on matters of clothing.

3. Some students will need the benefit of individual counsel so that they may have personal assistance in the development of taste in selecting and wearing clothes.

4. The teacher-counselor should seek help from among clothing-store personnel. They may be asked to visit the group at school to advise young people on matters of dress. It may also be found advantageous for boys and girls to visit them in their respective places of business in order to be given opportunities for comparison, modeling, and demonstrations.

5. The teacher-counselor should also give pupils opportunities to discuss impersonally the basic considerations involved in being sensibly, economically, and tastefully dressed.

Recognition of youth's worries about dress as a social factor and a frank, helpful form of guidance which brings them face to face with this problem in relation to other social concerns will be most beneficial.

Dating and Hours. If there has been a study of the social problems about which pupils worry most in the local school, the teacher-counselor will know the extent of his pupils' concern about how often to have dates and when to get home. The very recognition of this problem by pupils is proof enough that it deserves consideration. The teacher-counselor may then discuss with students such questions as these:

1. What are the advantages and disadvantages of budgeting time for social activities?

2. What are some reasonable considerations in determining the frequency of dates? For determining hours for getting home evenings?

3. Which is more desirable, externally imposed or self-imposed restrictions on the number of dates one should have and the time to report home? Is this necessarily an either-or proposition? Why or why not?

4. Assume that two people usually find it pleasant to be together. What are some of the circumstances that may cause one to become bored with the other?

5. Since students are frequently associated with more than one group (school, church, club, etc.), does it appear that events sponsored by these

groups tend at times to pyramid? What are the possibilities of working out a social calendar cooperatively?

When considering this problem the teacher-counselor should understand that there are often many demands made upon students. Right or wrong, these demands are frequently great, as any parent whose son or daughter has recently attended high school can testify. In nearly every community there are several organized groups other than the school, some adult-sponsored, some not, that are competing for boys' and girls' time. The teacher-counselor should also be aware of the presence of those who feel that they have too few opportunities for dates. Consideration of the problem of dating and hours should therefore be objective and impersonal, except when individual counsel demands that the counselor be both objective and personal.

On Meeting People. One of the social graces youth would like to develop, and one that has been given too little attention by parents and school personnel alike, is that of ease in meeting people. Some boys and girls do not know how properly to introduce their friends to one another or to adults. Some do not know the correct responses upon being introduced to people. The teacher-counselor, recognizing that some pupils do not know how best to meet or to introduce others, can help them simply by giving them experiences in the use of correct procedures. The opportunities are manifold in practically every school. They need only to be taken.

Finding Out How Pupils Feel. Of significance to the guidance worker are the ways pupils feel about themselves in relation to their associates. In the final analysis, the pupil must learn social behavior individually. In this process he must be able to examine himself in relation to his associations with his contemporaries and in terms of the social problems about which he and others are most concerned. It follows, therefore, that the guidance worker should know how each pupil feels about himself in the social setting in order to adapt guidance activities to each pupil's needs.

The inventory which appears in following pages, entitled "How Do You Feel about Such Things?" is designed to help the guidance worker discover how pupils feel about themselves in relation to others. The questions in the inventory parallel the types of social problems about which youth worry most, and they are grouped

under Roman numerals I, II, III, and so on, each group representing a particular type of social problem. For example, questions under "I" relate to problems in "How Best to Get Along with Girl and Boy Friends," questions under "II" relate to problems in "Feeling of Not Belonging Socially," and so on.

Pupils' responses to the questions in the inventory should be thoughtfully studied in relation to other information and data about them, including age, sex, mental ability, aptitudes, interests, family background, group affiliations, social problems, and other data about them that tend to reveal them as persons.

Although not all questions in "How Do You Feel about Such Things?" have been framed so that the responses may definitely be considered either favorable or unfavorable, a considerable number of them can be so regarded. For example, a "No" response to the question "Do you usually feel uncertain about how to act when you are with young people of the opposite sex?" may be interpreted as a favorable answer since it indicates that for the most part the pupil has adjusted himself to situations involving boy-girl relationships. Lest the wrong impression be given at this point, the guidance worker is warned against conclusions drawn from a pupil's response to a single question. By all means take them all together for study before making even tentative judgment. Then the tentative judgment should be checked in the light of all other information available about the pupil.

TO STUDENTS

How you feel about a great many things is important. But sometimes you go along, as everyone does, without actually considering the way you feel about yourself in relation to other people. Since one seldom amounts to very much alone, it is how he lives and works and plays with other people that "brings him out" and really makes him a person of value.

Here is an opportunity to say how you feel about some of the things having to do with your associations with others. Start with the first question and go right through the list. When you read each question, check "Yes" or "No" in the space provided. Read each question carefully, and be sure to answer each question. It will take only a few moments.

Your counselor will be glad to discuss with you the way you feel about some of these important matters.

How Do You Feel about Such Things?

I

Yes No

1. Do you usually feel uncertain about how to act when you are with young people of the opposite sex?
2. Do you feel that you have too much trouble getting along with those of the opposite sex?
3. Do you feel that it is more fun to be with those of the opposite sex who are about your age?
4. Do you feel "left out" because those of the opposite sex who are about your age prefer to go with older people rather than with you?
5. Do you feel that you get along better with those of your own sex than you do with those of the opposite sex?
6. Do you feel that you get along equally well with both boys and girls?
7. Do you feel that you do not get along well with members of the opposite sex because they do not understand you?
8. Do you feel that those of your own sex are jealous of you because of your friends?

II

9. Do you feel that "going steady" causes one to have fewer boy and girl friends?
10. Do you feel that you are not well accepted socially?
11. Do you feel left out of things because you are not a member of a social club in your school?
12. Do you feel left out of social events because of your age?
13. Do you feel that social life at school is run primarily for a few students who belong to certain organizations?
14. Do you feel that you would be taken into various organizations at school if some of the students really knew you for what you are worth?
15. Do you feel that it is more fun to date people who are not in school?
16. Do you feel that your school is run mostly for the benefit of a certain group of students who consider themselves members of the "better class" socially?
17. Do you feel that in your school one is definitely either "in or out" socially?
18. Do you often feel that you must do something unusual to show

other students what you can do so that they will like you better?

19. Do you often feel that you would be happier if you were just like someone else you know?

III

20. Do you often fail to have friends in your home because you feel you do not know how to entertain them so that they will have a good time?
21. Do you feel uncertain about how best to entertain your girl or boy friend?
22. Do you often feel that your parties are dull when you invite both boys and girls?
23. Do you often feel that there is nothing worth while to do when you have a date?
24. Do you feel that you are more able to entertain a group of your own sex than a mixed group?

IV

25. Do you feel that it is very hard to choose friends you can trust?
26. Do you often feel that perhaps you have not chosen the right friends in school?
27. Do you feel that you have friends a short time and then for no reason at all they are not friends any more?
28. Do you often feel that you lose interest in your friends because they change much more than you do?
29. Do you nearly always feel that you are to blame when you lose a friend?

V

30. Do you often feel that there are too few decent places in the community where students can go for recreation?
31. Do you often go to the movies only because you feel that there is nothing better for you and your friends to do?
32. Do you sometimes feel that you might just as well go to places you would rather not go to only because you and your friends are tired of going to the same places all the time?
33. Do you feel that students sometimes "go wrong" because they have too few good places for parties, dances, and other recreational activities?
34. Do you feel that things to do for recreation cost too much?

35. Do you feel that the school building and the school grounds should be open to students more often for social affairs?
36. Do you feel that adults in the community understand the problems students have in finding nice places to go for fun and recreation?

VI

37. Do you feel that courtship properly carried on is good preparation for marriage?
38. Do you feel the need for knowing what is right in courtship?
39. Do you feel that adults should give young people more information about courtship and marriage than they do?
40. Do you fear that you may not know how to choose the right person for a mate until it is too late?

VII

41. Do you feel that you almost never look as well dressed as others when you go out?
42. Do you nearly always feel uncertain about what clothes to wear when you are going out?
43. Do you feel that you should wear something different almost every time you go out?
44. Do you often feel embarrassed because some students are nearly always overdressed?
45. Do you feel that you do not know how to select clothes that will bring out your best features?
46. Do you often feel ill at ease because you cannot dress as well as other people?
47. Do you sometimes have the feeling that you are overdressed when you go out?
48. Do you feel that you would have more friends if you could dress better?
49. Do you feel that you are snubbed socially by some students because of the clothes you wear?

VIII

50. Do you feel that you have too many dates to allow you to do other things you would like to do?
51. Do you feel that you must have more dates than you should in order to keep your place in your group of friends?
52. Do you feel that you are usually out later than you should be when you are with your date?
53. Do you sometimes feel bored by your date because you are together so much?

Yes No

54. Do you feel that too many things are planned by some students just to get dates?
55. Do you feel that students should get together and decide upon a reasonable number of dates and upon the hours that should be kept?

IX

56. Do you usually feel ill at ease when you are introduced to new people?
57. Do you often feel that you can't make conversation when you are introduced to a new boy or girl?
58. Do you feel that it is "common" to take the initiative in meeting new people?
59. Do you feel uncertain about how to introduce boys and girls properly?
60. Do you usually feel ill at ease when you are introduced to an adult?
61. Do you feel uncertain about how to introduce your friends to adults?

Name_____

Age_____

Sex_____

Grade_____

Who Is and Who Isn't. It is of value to the teacher-counselor and to other guidance workers to know the bases of pupils' judgments of their peers, the characteristics they commonly recognize when designating who "is" and who "isn't" among their associates. Two devices are suggested, in addition to the one given in connection with the topic "About Getting Along with Girl and Boy Friends" by which this information may be obtained. The first is the "Guess-who Test," and the second is the "Word-portrait Test."

The "Guess-who Test," in the context used here, consists of a series of paired statements, each statement embodying a single characteristic or trait with which persons are identified by respondents. The test includes both desirable and undesirable characteristics. The complete test is given to pupils, together with the names of all students in a given class (freshman, sophomore, etc.) or homeroom, and with instructions to read each statement and name one or more

persons in the class or homeroom that the statement "fits." Following are sample statements.

GUESS WHO ²¹

Some people are like this

You name them

1. This person treats everyone with equal respect.
2. This person tries to run everything.
3. This person treats most people as if they are inferior.
4. This person cooperates well with others.

By completing the "Guess-who Test" in accordance with groupings of trait clusters, individual trait-cluster scores may be computed. The means are then provided for plotting individual trait-cluster profiles. In computing a pupil's trait-cluster score, divide the number of times his name is mentioned in connection with desirable traits by the total number of times his name is mentioned and multiply the quotient by 100 to get rid of decimals. This is the formula.

$$\frac{\text{Frequency of mention of desirable traits}}{\text{Total number of times mentioned}} \times 100$$

Use of this means of computing scores tends to rule out the factor of popularity. For example, a popular student may receive a frequency of mention of desirable traits of 60 out of a frequency of total mention of 80. His desirable-traits score would then be

$$60\%_{80} = .75 \times 100 = 75$$

A less popular pupil may receive a frequency of mention of desirable traits of 15 out of a frequency of total mention of 20. His desirable-traits score would then be

$$15\%_{20} = .75 \times 100 = 75$$

The "Word-portrait Test" is a modified "Guess-who Test," differing in that it consists of short paragraphs paired so that one is composed of several manifestations of a desirable trait, while the other is composed of several manifestations of an undesirable trait. For example:

²¹ Note in this example that statements 1 and 3 and 2 and 4 represent two pairs. Each pair of statements reveals two traits, one that has high value as a desirable trait and one that has low value as an undesirable trait.

This person is thoughtful of others. He thinks for himself, he listens to others, and he is tactful when he disagrees. He can be depended upon to see a job through.

This person is egotistical. He has very few if any original ideas, and he will not listen to what others have to say. He will not see a job through, and he blames everyone but himself for things that go wrong.

The "Word-portrait Test" is set up and administered by the same procedures used with the "Guess-who Test," including the computation of scores. *Neither test should be signed by pupils who complete it.* Let their responses be anonymous for best results.

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CHAPTER 3 *Family Relations Problems of Youth*

It was shown in Chapter I that problems having their origin in home and family life rank second among the sources of worry for youth in secondary school. This is not surprising when considered in light of the fact that there is probably no such thing as a perfect home, that the range in quality is perhaps from satisfactory in most respects to very bad. Moreover, the home represents the hub of the child's circle of movement, from which he goes almost daily into a life-environment which produces experiences and therefore ways of thinking and behaving that are at best in mild conflict with values considered basic by his parents and other members of the family, and that may be sufficiently contradictory to result in openly hostile relations on the one hand or in submissiveness on the other.¹

In presenting the family-relations problems of youth, it should be emphasized that this category of worries should be accorded top significance, even though pupils gave it a rank of second to their immediate social problems. Indeed, there are good reasons to believe that problems which stem from home and family life give rise in turn to a majority of all other problems about which young people worry most.

YOUTH'S FAMILY-RELATIONS PROBLEMS

The types of family-relations problems about which secondary-school youth worry most are presented in Figure 4, according to age and sex. Figure 4 reveals that family-relations worries of youth are of six types: (1) disagreement between child and parents on matters

¹ Percival M. Symonds, *The Dynamics of Parent-Child Relationships*, pp. 70-81, Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York, 1949.

of standards, (2) lack of understanding between parents and child, (3) conflicts between brothers and sisters, (4) incompatibility, broken home, neglect, (5) too little time with parents, and (6) inability to get along with relatives.

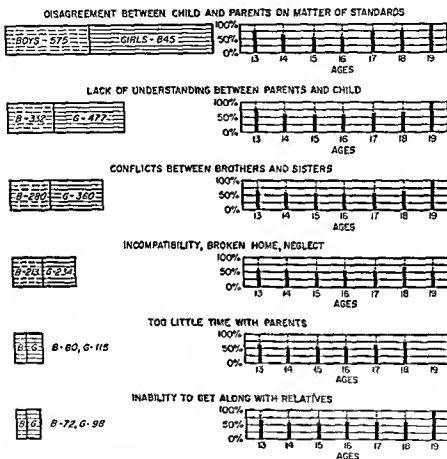


FIG. 4. Distribution of 3,681 references to six types of family-relations problems about which youth worry most, by sex (left); and percentage ratios of responses of girls to boys, by age (right).

ability to get along with relatives. For the most part, the problems growing out of family relationships are parent-child matters.

It should be observed also that 90-plus per cent of all references to problems in family relations came from boys and girls from ages fourteen to seventeen, inclusive. It is striking that this same age

group composed approximately 91 per cent of the total number of students who contributed to the present study (see Figure 1). Again, Figure 4 indicates that more girls than boys tend to express such worries. In this connection, however, it should be remembered that 52 per cent of the total number of pupils who stated their problems were girls. The relative difference is therefore not so great as it appears.

The contents of Figure 4 are most meaningful when studied in terms of the nature of youth's problems. They are described by type in succeeding paragraphs.

Disagreement between Child and Parents on Matters of Standards. This type of family-relations problem was mentioned by 575 boys and 845 girls, for a total frequency of 1,420, to give it first rank among the several types of difficulties in the area of family relations. As can be seen by reference to Figure 4, the percentage frequencies are 41 and 59 for boys and girls, respectively. The significance to youth of this type of problem is indicated by the fact that its frequency of mention is 38.5 per cent of the total number of family-relations problems. Its meaning is clearer to guidance workers and to teachers when studied in statements presented by students. Here are several examples.

A fellow just can't wear the same suit everywhere he goes, but my parents think one suit is enough. [Boy, 15]

The attitude of my parents toward my ideas and opinions as concerning make-up, boys, and clothes is a problem to me. [Girl, 15]

What shall I do about choosing between my own ideas and mother's--I mean about friends? [Girl, 17]

My parents won't let me go with boys. I'm sixteen and I feel I should get to. [Girl, 16]

What can you do if you like to dance and your parents disapprove? [Girl, 16]

Convincing my parents that I'm old enough to have dates and to wear certain clothes is a problem for me. [Girl, 16]

Why can't I go to certain shows when the titles are very decent-sounding, but my parents don't like the actor or maybe the actress? [Boy, 15]

My parents object to a certain club I belong to. [Boy, 15]

My problem is whether I should take my parents' advice about marrying. They have old-fashioned ideas about the world today. [Girl, 16]

My dad and mother and I don't agree on the clothes a boy needs these

days. They don't realize a boy needs different clothes, depending on where he is going. [Boy, 16]

My parents and I quarrel because we do not see things alike. I refer to what I think and to what I feel I should do. [Boy, 17]

My father is never pleased with the dates I have, and he embarrasses me before my friends. [Girl, 16]

My family and I can't agree on how people my age should behave. They object to everything I do. [Boy, 14]

My parents are too easy on me. [Boy, 16]

My parents leave it to me where I go and what I do, and I don't know if I'm doing right. I wish I knew their standards. [Boy, 17]

If you would like to go somewhere and your parents leave the decision up to you, but you would rather have their permission, should you go? [Girl, 14]

One of my problems is that my mother and father don't keep me at home very much. I mean by that, they will let me go where I want to and do what I want to. [Boy, 16]

I am worried because my parents try to make me believe as they do, and I can't. They don't seem to live in the same world with me. [Boy, 17]

From the above statements of problems by youth, it is seen that children and their parents disagree on matters of standards which involve dress, dating, friends, marriage, entertainment, conduct, basic beliefs, group affiliation, and control. It is evident from pupils' statements that disagreements on matters of standards touch upon many phases of life and that these disagreements take a number of forms. A child may know definitely his parents' standards but still disagree. He may have parents who are so lenient that he is not sure what they stand for, and so he questions—even objects to—their leniency. Between these circumstances, and beside them, are so many not so clear-cut points of difference between parents and children that it would be impossible to enumerate them.

Lack of Understanding between Parents and Child. Closely related to the type of family-relations problem just described is the type described here as lack of understanding between parents and child. This type of problem was mentioned by students 809 times. Boys gave it a frequency of 332 and girls 477 times. Youth present this type of problem in the following ways.

I can't make everything fit into the laws my parents make. [Boy, 15]

I want to be treated sixteen instead of six. [Boy, 16]

Mother's trying to keep me a baby. [Girl, 16]

Mother gets angry when I make messes with model airplanes. [Boy, 14]

There is no regularity in my house. Nothing is done on schedule. No time is allowed for the family to be together and talk things over. Sometimes more than a day passes before I see members of my family. It's just in and out, and no one is ever interested in anything I do until I do something wrong. Then they all seem to think there is no reason for it. How can a person do anything right under these conditions? [Girl, 15]

Do parents honestly have trust in their children? [Girl, 15]

My family thinks I should make A's in school, but I can't. [Boy, 17]

My parents don't take me seriously when I discuss my problems. I can't understand it. [Girl, 17]

I have no place to be alone to study, and my parents can't understand why I don't do well in school. [Boy, 16]

Should a boy or girl go to his parents with his problems? I'd like to, but we don't seem to understand each other. [Boy, 15]

My parents don't understand some of my viewpoints, and sometimes it seems they don't bother to take much interest in me. I don't understand them. [Girl, 16]

My mother and dad don't seem to try to understand anybody but themselves, and regardless of how human or insignificant a fault one may have, they try to give the impression that it's very wrong and they never do it, when you know good and well they do but you can't say anything. [Girl, 16]

My parents are a mystery to me. They are fine, I suppose, but I don't understand them well enough to profit much by living with them. [Boy, 17]

I don't understand why my parents take the attitudes they do toward me. I try to do the right things, but I am never sure, so I make serious mistakes in their eyes and it worries me. [Boy, 16]

I got along fine with my parents when I was little, but lately we seem to be getting farther and farther apart. We seem to understand each other less and less, and I worry because home is not the happy place it should be. [Boy, 16]

My grades have fallen off since I've been in high school because I worry all the time about what is happening between my parents and me. We don't understand each other. [Girl, 16]

Thus young people express themselves on the lack of understanding between them and their parents. It requires little more than superficial reading of these statements to see how many youth and their parents are drifting farther and farther apart at a period when

the children need very much the sustaining influence and counsel of understanding fathers and mothers.

Conflicts between Brothers and Sisters. There are frequent conflicts between brothers and sisters, as shown by Figure 4. This is the third-ranking type of family-relations problem listed by secondary-school students, having a frequency of 640. Typical statements of this type of problem follow.

My sister and I are always arguing about something, and it worries me because she is so snoopy and carries tales to my parents. [Boy, 17]

My younger brother and I have trouble. He thinks he ought to do everything I do and go everywhere I go, although he is two years younger. [Boy, 17]

My younger brother tries to boss me and everyone in the family. [Girl, 15]

My brother is always telling my mother and daddy what I do and where I go. He goes out every night, but he thinks I shouldn't. [Girl, 16]

My sister wants to wear my clothes and shoes, and I'm getting tired of it. [Girl, 14]

My sister convinces my parents that she needs everything. I don't get anything, and she quarrels with me all the time. [Boy, 15]

Is it just impossible for brothers and sisters to get along? [Boy, 16]

My mother gives special privileges to my just-older brother; and her being very partial to him and not giving me credit for having any judgment is a problem for me. [Girl, 14]

I try not to be really jealous of my brother, but I can't help noticing my mother's partiality to him. He is all mother talks about. [Girl, 16]

My sister gets all the breaks, and I envy her. [Boy, 15]

How can I keep from being jealous of my brother? He knows it, and we have some awful quarrels. [Girl, 15]

My sister is very popular. I am not. It makes me envious of her. [Girl, 16]

My brother and I come to blows sometimes. He wears my clothes without permission, and he lies to my parents. [Boy, 16]

Aside from the fact that many conflicts between children in the same family derive basically from thoughtlessness, there is also the fact that the attitudes of parents frequently intensify the differences. Indeed, many sibling conflicts appear in the nature of jealousy and partiality, with resultant strong emotional unrest.

Incompatibility, Broken Home, Neglect. Incompatibility of parents, the broken home, or neglect of family responsibilities by

parents form a major source of worry among youth. This type of problem was given by 213 boys and 234 girls as one of their chief worries. Here is how youth feel about such things.

Bitter quarrels between my father and mother interrupt my study and upset me in many ways. [Girl, 16]

I get so upset I can't do anything when my dad and mother fuss. They fuss too much. [Boy, 15]

My mother and father do not get along, and as long as I can remember they have not gotten along. It's terrible. [Boy, 17]

My mother and father quarrel so much I wonder why people get married. [Boy, 16]

Dad and mother can't seem to ever agree, and I don't seem to respect them as I did once. It frightens me. [Girl, 15]

My sister is ill and needs certain foods, but she has the word "can't" in her way because my father wastes his salary. [Girl, 15]

I have a drinking father. It costs too much money to drink, and the family is without things. [Boy, 14]

My father neglects us. We could be comfortable if he did not waste his salary. [Boy, 16]

Father and mother are divorced. He is married to another woman, yet he still comes to see my mother and is making his present wife unhappy. Is there any way I could help with this problem? [Girl, 15]

My main problem is that my parents are separated, and this always takes my mind off what I'm doing. [Boy, 16]

I have a problem about my family. My mother is getting a divorce and it's awful. [Girl, 15]

My mother and daddy have been separated for ten years. I live with my daddy because he is financially better able to send me to school. I'd like to live with my mother. [Boy, 16]

My father was killed about nine months ago, and it worries me all the time. [Boy, 16]

My stepfather worries me because of mother. Our home is not a happy one. [Girl, 16]

My father died when I was only three years old, and since that time I have never known what it is to have a father. My problem is that some questions which only a father can answer must remain unanswered unless I can find satisfactory answers somewhere else. [Girl, 16]

I haven't got a father. I have to work to buy supplies, so I don't have many friends. [Boy, 17]

A girl hasn't got a chance if her mother is divorced. [Girl, 16]

In these statements we get something of youth's concern about the home when it is in the grip of tensions caused by parental neglect, incompatibility, and divorce. Not a few young people also feel keenly the loss of a parent by death, which makes a home at best an incomplete home.

Too Little Time with Parents. Youth worry because they have too little time with their parents. This is the fifth-ranking type of family-relations problem, with a frequency of 195. Young people need time with their parents, and they are aware of this need, as the following statements reveal.

I don't see enough of my parents to feel free to talk with them about my problems; therefore, I never have any advice on any problem I might have. [Girl, 15]

Never in any crisis in my life is my mother at home to hear about it. [Girl, 16]

My dad is so busy at one thing or another that he never has time to teach me the things I ought to know. [Boy, 16]

Is it impossible for parents to give their children any of their time? I need to be with my parents but they are too busy for me. [Boy, 15]

My mother is not available when I really need her. She doesn't seem to have time for me. [Girl, 16]

My parents used to take me with them now and then, but they don't any more. I need their help, but they never have time for me. [Boy, 14]

My father and mother have never given of themselves to me, and I need their advice if only I knew them well enough to get it. We never have any time together, and I wonder what parents are for. [Girl, 17]

My brother and I are pretty much alone. Our parents are interested in doing everything they can for other people, but we have never been with them enough to make conversation. We think sometimes we should talk things over with dad and mother, but they don't seem to have time to listen, and we don't know what to do about it. [Boy, 17]

Youth need parents who manifest in a multitude of ways love for their children and a warm interest in all their problems. They need parents who manage somehow to be on the job as *parents*, sharing their children's joys, helping them over troublesome spots, planning with them, and building their futures with them.

Inability to Get Along with Relatives. This is the sixth and last of the types of family-relations problems about which youth worry most. It is perhaps unfortunate but true that an increasing number of children live in homes that include relatives. Grandparents, uncles,

aunts, and cousins are to be found variously grouped as families. And if not in the same home, relatives are frequently so near at hand that every move of the one is known by the other. These circumstances worry boys and girls. This is what they say about relatives.

My daddy and I live with his parents. They are old, and therefore it is hard for me to have parties, and they are a little cranky, too. [Girl, 15]

My father has to be away from home, and I have to live with my grandparents. It is very hard to do. [Boy, 15]

My aunt is always trying to 'tend to my affairs. [Boy, 15]

My cousin and I can't get along together. We live together, and we fuss and fight a lot. We have practically nothing in common. [Boy, 16]

My grandmother is partial to my sisters. It often makes me feel sorry for myself. I want to stop this. What can I do? [Girl, 16]

Grandmother wants to pick my friends and wants to tell me how often I can go out at night. I wonder how long I can take it. [Girl, 16]

We have relatives all around us. They are not satisfied unless they can stir up trouble. It almost worries the life out of me. [Boy, 17]

My uncle lives with us. He tries to tell me what I can do and what I can't do, and he is always telling my parents what they should do to make me a "nice" girl. [Girl, 17]

My aunt is a soured old maid who lives with us. She thinks the younger generation is going to the dogs and says so every time I have friends come to the house. The trouble she causes is a sin. [Boy, 16]

Since my aunt and her two kids came to live with us there is no peace in our home. I hate all of them and wish they would get out where they belong. [Boy, 13]

For several years we have had relatives living with us. I gave in to their whims to try to have some peace in the family, but now I hardly have any friends. Nothing could be more unfair to children. [Girl, 19]

The nature of youth's problems originating in the home permits the observation that young people of secondary-school age are basically concerned about those things which stir the deeper emotional currents. In nearly every case, youth's problems in home and family relations involve basic values—moral, social, and ethical. In the vast majority of instances these value-conflicts are parent-child matters; disagreement between parents and child on matters of standards; lack of understanding between parents and child; incompatibility of father and mother, broken homes, neglect; too little time with parents; conflicts between children in the family, not infrequently the result of parental feelings and attitudes; and inability

to get along with relatives, another problem that is in many instances aggravated by the position taken by one or both parents.

There are undoubtedly tiffs now and then between parents and children in even the best-regulated homes, more perhaps than Punke's study revealed.² From a study involving several thousand boys and girls in high school, he found that approximately one-third indicated some degree of conflict in their homes. The point we should like to stress here is that when students are free to state their most pressing worries, they generally do not mention such conflicts between themselves and their parents as who shall listen to the radio and when, leaving wet towels on the bathroom floor, Mary's refusal to eat cabbage, and an infinitude of similar conflicts.

In this connection one of the present authors followed up this study by going into several schools and talking with groups of students who had responded to the request for problems about which they worry most. Upon questioning them about tiffs in the family, practically everyone frankly admitted a quarrel now and then with parents over the use of the radio, bedtime, food, and similar things. The youngsters, however, were almost as one in the belief that they were of practically no consequence. As one boy put it, "Home would be a pretty dull place if you couldn't pick a little scrap with the folks once in a while."

IMPORTANCE OF FAMILY RELATIONS

A vast amount of evidence has been brought forth in the past twenty-five years to support the position that the family has greater influence in the shaping of the character and the personality of the child than any other single force. Competent investigators of many facets of the larger problem of parent-child relations have arrived at essentially the same conclusions, so well typified by the following:

There is nothing now more firmly established by the science of human conduct than the predominance of the family in the making of personality. Proof of the power of the home to shape the individual has accumulated from the findings of psychology, social work, psychiatry, and sociology . . .³

² H. H. Punke, "High School Youth and Family Quarrels," *School and Society*, 58:507-511, 1943.

³ Ernest R. Groves and Catharine Groves, *Dynamic Mental Hygiene*, p. 10, Stackpole and Heck, Inc., New York, 1943.

Undoubtedly the most important single influence on character is the home. Consequently, it is necessary in a study of character formation to evaluate the moral influence of the home upon different individuals and different groups of individuals.⁴

Recent psychological studies indicate that personality is very largely a product of the interactions between parents and child.⁵

Influences of the family largely condition children's attitudes toward social institutions such as the church, the school, the playground, and the community at large.⁶ Attitudes toward father, mother, brother, sister, love, hate, fear, control, and many others are formed early under the influence of parents, and the larger family attitude has considerable bearing upon the development of these attitudes in the child. The influence of the home profoundly affects children's thinking about the development of such socially desirable traits as sharing, honesty, respect for the views of others, cooperativeness, settlement of differences by compromise, and discrimination in the choice of activities. It may also be added that family influence has a pronounced bearing upon matters concerning choice of vocation, marriage, and attitudes pertaining to the general welfare.

HOW LIKE THEIR PARENTS?

The behavior of the child in secondary school reflects the attitudes and behavior of his parents, which he has sensed and observed throughout his lifetime. The phenomenon of dependence, which is the child's lot from birth through adolescence, is related to the need for security. And of all the security needs that may be felt by the child as he grows up, emotional security is one of the most pressing. For security the child turns to his parents. He is dependent upon them. He receives their gifts of food, clothing, toys, and other material things. But he observes the spirit of the givers, and he senses their feeling toward him, no matter how bountiful the gift.

⁴ Robert J. Havighurst and Hilda Taba, *Adolescent Character and Personality*, p. 41, John Wiley & Sons, Inc., New York, 1949.

⁵ Symonds, *op. cit.*, p. 3.

⁶ An excellent reference is Carolyn B. Zachry, *Emotion and Conduct in Adolescence*, Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., New York, 1940.

He feels emotionally secure and happy or emotionally insecure and possessed of anxiety, depending upon how his parents feel about him. And no matter how hard parents try, they cannot long hide their feelings from their child.

By the time the child reaches secondary school, his personality type can be delineated with considerable accuracy. His attitudes and his behavior reflect many of the circumstances of family life—the feelings and behavior of his parents and his attainment of or his struggle for emotional security. Careful study of his life history would no doubt reveal the truth of Symonds's statement that "the essence of parent-child relations . . . lies more in how a parent *feels* than in what a parent *does*."⁷

It is discouraging to hear teachers in the schools frequently remark that Bill, or Joe, or Sue reflects his or her family background, with little understanding that the statement means scarcely more than that the family is poor, or is wealthy, or manages only a fairly decent standard of living. It is not the purpose here to explore the deeper psychic implications of such a statement. We shall, however, present sufficient information to provide guidance workers in the secondary school with bases for reasonable understanding of what a pupil's behavior usually reveals about his parents. Since study of each pupil as a person is basic to guidance, and since we are here primarily interested in parent-child relationships as sources of worry among students in secondary school, we shall attempt to characterize the one and identify the other as to type. To do this we shall draw heavily upon other sources.

Some seven years ago the Committee on Human Development of the University of Chicago studied the character development of sixteen-year-old boys and girls in the high school in a town they chose to call Prairie City.⁸ Among other things, this committee studied the influence upon character development as affected by the quality of emotional relations with parents. Consideration by the committee of the over-all personality of each subject led to his identification according to one of five types: the self-directive person, the adaptive person, the submissive person, the defiant person, and the unadjusted person.⁹

⁷ Symonds, *op. cit.*, p. xiii.

⁸ Havighurst and Taba, *op. cit.*, is a report of this study.

⁹ *Ibid.*, pp. 124-175.

Havighurst and Taba report that the self-directive person is usually characterized as dependable, orderly and persistent, reputable, willing to accept leadership and responsibility, and self-critical. His standards for self-attainment are high; he possesses a severe conscience and seeks gratification through personal attainment. His school marks are usually good; he is below the upper quartile in personal adjustment, uncertain about moral values, and generally liked by teachers, students, and others.

Parents of the self-directive person probably bestow less than the usual amount of emotional warmth upon the child, have a strong devotion to dogmas of the church, and place accomplishment above self.

The adaptive person is likely to be characterized as above average in intelligence, nonaggressive, willing to adopt rather than think out character values, amenable, outgoing in personality, and attractive physically. He acts with considerable self-assurance and seeks gratification through identification with group.

Parents of the adaptive person can usually be characterized by a great amount of affection for child, broad and tolerant moral views, few if any restrictions on child's social participation, and lenience in discipline. They are of the "permissive" type.

The submissive person is usually characterized as follows: follows rather than leads, does what is expected of him for satisfaction, and avoids conflict. He is ignored by his peers, who neither like nor dislike him. He lacks self-confidence, is aloof from school social activities, is loyal to standards, has a strong sense of duty and a severe conscience, is docile in the presence of adults, and is liked by teachers.

Parents of the submissive child are usually characterized as rigidly authoritarian, display little emotional warmth toward the child, have a strong devotion to their social or ethnic group, and set harsh standards for the child to meet.

The defiant person is usually characterized by strong dislike for school and readiness to say so, and an unwillingness to make personal sacrifices. He is maladjusted socially, quarrelsome, and self-centered.

The parents of the defiant person are usually lacking in love for the child, inconsiderate, inconsistent with respect to basic human values, and neglectful.

The unadjusted person is usually characterized as discontented, insecure, and frequently hostile to school, home, and community. He has a tendency to be negative and a poor character reputation. He is the object of frequent social discrimination by his peers, has difficulty with his family, and his school achievement is below his ability.

Parents of the unadjusted child are difficult to characterize. They may have some of or all the characteristics of other parents described here. They usually have limited educational backgrounds and frequently press the child to go farther in school than they did. They insist upon "doing what is right" as they see it and tend to impose their standards of conduct upon their child. They are most frequently in the lower income bracket. Such parents may be characterized as the acceptant-nonindulgent type, for want of a better characterization.

The characterizations of pupils and parents just presented, though practical in the context of this book, do not by any means exhaust the possibilities for extension and for combinations of types. For example, Symonds's critical examination of individual-case materials gathered by expert child-guidance workers prompted him to describe and explain parent-child relations in terms of parental rejection, parental overindulgence, parental overprotection, parental overauthority and overstrictness, projection of parental ambition, parental overdependence, parental ambivalence, and combinations of parental attitudes.¹⁰ A study of parental behavior by Baldwin, Kalhorn, and Breeze revealed that from a relatively few basic types or patterns of behavior parents might well be classified by certain categories or combinations of types.¹¹ These authors prefer to classify parental behavior as actively rejectant, nonchalantly rejectant, casually autocratic, casually indulgent, acceptant-indulgent, acceptant-casual-indulgent, acceptant-indulgent-democratic, and acceptant-democratic.¹²

Let us turn our attention now to the family-relations problems of most concern to youth in secondary school. Guidance workers should

¹⁰ Symonds, *op. cit.*, pp. 11-88.

¹¹ A. L. Baldwin, J. Kalhorn, and F. H. Breeze, "Patterns of Parental Behavior," *Psychological Monographs*, Vol. 58, No. 3, 1945.

¹² An excellent summary of these is presented by Luella Cole, *Psychology of Adolescence*, pp. 276-278, Rinehart & Company, Inc., New York, 1948.

be reminded that young people's statements of these problems also reveal many of the same characteristics of their parents as those described above. Moreover, a search through youth's statements of their family-relations worries reveals a great deal about the emotional attitudes of these boys and girls.

As a means of showing more clearly basic parent-child relationships as they reflect in behavior, it may be said that:

When the child is usually like this

1. Dependable, orderly and persistent; reputable; accepts leadership and responsibility; self-critical; sets high standards for self-attainment; makes good school marks; below upper quartile in personal adjustment; uncertain about moral values; generally liked
2. Above average in intelligence; nonaggressive; adopts rather than thinks out character values; amenable; outgoing in personality; physically attractive; acts with considerable self-assurance; seeks gratification through identification with group
3. Follows rather than leads; gains satisfaction by doing what is expected of him; avoids conflicts with others; is neither liked nor disliked but simply ignored by peers; lacks self-confidence; avoids school social functions; is loyal to own standards; has a strong sense of duty and a severe conscience; docile in the presence of adults; liked by teachers
4. Has a strong dislike for school and readily says so; uncooperative; disliked by peers; weak in character; refuses to make personal sacrifices; maladjusted socially; quarrelsome; self-centered
5. Discontented; insecure; frequently hostile toward school, home, and

Parents are usually like this

1. Bestow less than usual amount of emotional warmth upon child; have a strong devotion to dogmas of church and group of associates; place accomplishment above self
2. Bestow great amount of affection upon child; have broad and tolerant moral views; place few if any restrictions on child's social participation; mild disciplinarians; enormously permissive
3. Rigidly authoritarian; display little emotional warmth for child; have strong devotion to social and ethnic groups; set harsh standards for child to meet
4. Lack love for child; inconsiderate; inconsistent in terms of basic human values; neglectful
5. Variable in attitudes toward child; have limited educational back-

When the child is usually like this

community; negative; has a poor character reputation; is object of frequent social discrimination by peers; has frequent difficulty with family; achieves less in school than ability warrants

6. Boy unusually effeminate; avoids competitive games and sports normally associated with boys; does things ordinarily done by girls. Girl unusually boyish and aggressive; favors and engages in activities ordinarily associated with boys ¹⁴

Parents are usually like this

ground; narrow moral code; insist upon doing right as they see right; tend to impose own standards upon child; frequently press child to go farther in school than they did; accept but rarely indulge child

6. Mother dominates submissive father ¹⁵

THE SCHOOL CAN'T TAKE IT OR LEAVE IT

The school has been called upon to assume more and more responsibility for the nation's youth. It is society's agent, one to which millions of young people from practically every walk of life are committed annually with the hope that something can be done to, for, and with them that will develop them into more enlightened, more productive, better adjusted people. There we have it. Implicit in this statement are the responsibilities of the school. Educators may decry the circumstances which have so complicated life as to increase enormously the scope and functions of the secondary school, or they may accept them as the only circumstances under which the school can indeed fulfill its obligations to society, but there is really little choice in the matter if it is viewed intelligently. Unfortunately, not all the certified personnel in secondary education are of the latter disposition. It is unfortunate, first, because this is the chief reason that the secondary school has lagged in its efforts to gear all its activities to the needs, interests, and capacities of pupils and to the basic needs of society. The dominant characteristic of nearly every secondary school today is its adherence to what is thought to be the best preparation of the young for more advanced academic study.

Second, there is reason to believe that the conflicting points of view represented by those who resist change in practices and those

¹⁴ A dominant father-submissive mother situation usually produces the reverse of these characteristics in children.

who would admit the findings of research as bases for needed adjustments in school procedures are largely responsible for the back-door method by which many desirable activities (including guidance) have been introduced into the school program. This practice has contributed materially to the overcrowding of the curriculum and to a growing mass of potentially "related" activities that often never have a chance to establish relationships with already existing activities. It is too often a case of the old-line aristocratic family's refusal to admit the upstart cousin and his offspring. This circumstance in turn has served to stiffen the resistance of members of the aristocratic, or traditionally academic, school family. They may be less vocal in their antipathy for the "commoners" who moved in and refused to leave, but it is feared that, if continued unchecked, their more subtle and refined techniques of innuendo and the occasional, "Well, they say it's the more progressive way of doing things," will prove irreparably damaging to the best interests of school and society.

Third, some of the more damaging results of the conflict just named are stigmatization of curricula other than those blessed by tradition; competition within the school for pupil patronage; lowering of the school's prestige in the community, with the inevitable result that needed financial support is withheld; and the shameful rate of turnover of top leadership personnel, with the resulting inhibition of progress on every hand.

It is commonplace to remind school people of the importance of school and home relationships. Even so, it is the thoughtful opinion of the authors that so long as circumstances described above obtain, the relationship between school and many of its supporting patrons will at best continue to be generally one of tolerance. Indeed, in the presence of world conditions which are rapidly increasing the complexities and tensions of life, relationships between home and school may easily grow worse. But it is not in the primary interest of public relations that these statements are made. Rather, it is urged that professional personnel in secondary education quickly sense that

... both home and school owe their evolution to the needs of the child. There is no other historical reason for their existence. They are united by the bond of common membership; their supplementary functions bind them in a joint venture; and above all, they are together

charged with a responsibility that is society's most vital concern—the welfare of children.¹⁴

Let us hasten to say that the key words in this statement are “needs of the child,” and that emotional needs are certainly of primary importance. Once the school meets these needs, the school and community will be as one.

Implicit in youth's statements of their family-relations problems are the needs for emotional security and for the development of understandings and skills that will enable them to get along better with other members of their families. In meeting these needs of youth, the school will by so much be playing its complete role; it will be helping young people to mature emotionally, thus contributing to their success and happiness as youth and to the stability of homes the boys and girls soon will be establishing themselves. This, no less than academic instruction, is a job for the school, and not one to be accepted or thrown aside. Furthermore, every person who takes on a function in secondary education must assume his part in the larger role of the school as an obligation. Each person has an obligation to complement and to supplement the part played by every other member of the staff. The teacher, for example, who emotionally rejects a pupil can be sure that by his act he is increasing tensions and adding to the frustrations already felt by that pupil, and may, indeed, cause the pupil to respond negatively to other adults in the school whose influence might otherwise be positive.

GETTING MORE INFORMATION

Thus far in this chapter information has been given about the types of family-relations problems about which youth are most concerned, the importance of family-relations problems, some of the chief ways in which pupils reflect through behavior their relationships with parents, and the school's acceptance of its role of helping youth eliminate their family-relations worries. Guidance workers should now get information about each pupil's family, and about the nature and extent of each pupil's family-relations problems.

Information about the Family. Information about a pupil's family should be as complete and as up-to-date as possible. For guidance

¹⁴ Frank G. Davis (ed.), *Pupil Personnel Service*, p. 280, International Textbook Company, Scranton, Pa., 1948.

purposes, family data may be grouped under the following headings: identification of parents, education of parents, economic status, social-civic status, religion, racial extraction, family structure, recreational interests, type of home, health status, and attitudes. Presented below is an outline of the information needed under each of these headings.

1. *Identification of parents:*

Father's name, address, and age

Mother's name, address, and age

2. *Education of parents:*

Level of educational attainment of father

Level of educational attainment of mother

3. *Economic status:*

Father's occupation, place or territory in which work is done, and approximate income

Mother's occupation, place or territory in which work is done, and approximate income

Occupation of other adult members of the family, place or territory in which work is done, and approximate incomes

4. *Social-civic status:*

Group affiliations (religions, social, fraternal, civic) of father and mother

Status (leader, active, etc.) of father and mother in the groups with which they are identified

Approximate amount of time father and mother devote to group activities

5. *Religion:*

Religious conviction of father (Catholicism, Protestantism, Judaism, etc.)

Religious conviction of mother

Name and address of person(s) to whom father and mother go for religious or spiritual counsel

6. *Racial extraction:*

Racial extraction of father

Racial extraction of mother

Dominant language used in the home

Language used in the home other than English

7. Family structure:

Marital status of parents (living together, separated, divorced, deceased, stepfather, stepmother, child orphaned and living with relatives)

Number, ages, and sex of children

Number, ages, and sex of half brothers and half sisters

Number, ages, sex, and relationship of relatives living with family

8. Recreational interests:

Activities parents most often engage in for recreation

Recreational activities parents and child engage in together

Frequency with which parents and child engage in recreational activities together

9. Type of home:

Size (wholly inadequate, meets minimum space requirements, adequate, etc.)

Single unit, duplex, triplex, etc.

Location (rural, suburban, slum area, middle class, highly restricted area, etc.)

10. Health status:

Particular reference to physical disorders which might have damaging effects upon the emotions (morale) of the family

11. Attitudes:

Parents' attitudes toward one another

Parents' attitudes toward their children

Parents' attitudes on moral, social, civic, and cultural matters

Family-relations Worries of Pupils in the School as a Whole. Guidance workers may proceed with considerable assurance that the types of family-relations worries described earlier in this chapter will generally characterize those of their own pupils. Thus informed, they can outline plans for guidance in this area. It is evident, however, that steps should be taken to discover the family-relations problems of the local secondary-school population. It is suggested that this be done by means of the free-response technique described and outlined in Chapter 2.

Once the family-relations problems of students have been obtained, they can be classified according to type and arranged in order of frequency of mention by ages and sex of pupils. Guidance

personnel will then have in their hands information by which they can see, first, the extent of the over-all problem of family relations; second, the types of worries boys and girls have at different ages; and third, the degree of persistence of family-relations problems. Analysis and study of data obtained by the unguided, or free-response, technique will prove invaluable in planning guidance services with points of emphasis clearly in view.

Each Pupil's Family-relations Worries. At the appropriate time, it is advisable to ascertain the worries of each pupil which stem from family relations. This information is needed in order to secure bases for individual guidance, and can be obtained by means of an inventory of family-relations problems of the following type.

TO STUDENTS

It's All in the Family and in Nearly All Families

Worry, that is. Students in many high schools say they have family-relations problems. They also say they would like to know how to solve their problems. As one student wrote, "It's too bad we kids in high school don't have a chance to discuss our family worries so we can learn how to get along better with our families. It seems to me this is more important than a lot of things we do around school." That makes sense, doesn't it?

The kinds of family worries young people generally have are listed below. Please read them. When you get to one that worries you also, put a check mark like this \checkmark before it. When you have gone through the entire list and checked the things that worry you, place your name in the space provided on the last page and turn the whole thing in. Your problems will be held in strict confidence, and you will be given help when you want it.

I

1. My parents and I can't seem to agree on what I should wear.
2. My parents insist upon selecting most of my clothes. I'd like to select my own clothes.
3. My parents and I can't agree on the ways boys and girls my age should behave.
4. I frequently quarrel with my parents because they don't like the crowd I go around with.
5. I worry because my parents want to choose my friends.
6. My parents object to my having dates, and that's a worry.

7. My parents often embarrass me in front of my friends.
8. I worry because my parents have so many old-fashioned ideas that I don't know whether or not to take their advice.
9. My parents let me go out too often, and I wonder if it is right. I often feel I'd be better off if I didn't go.
10. My parents are too easy on me. If they would say "No" to me more often, I'd respect them more.

II

11. I worry because I can't seem to make everything fit into the laws my parents lay down.
12. I worry because my parents don't seem interested in anything I do until I do something they think is wrong.
13. I worry because my parents treat me as if I were a small child.
14. My parents don't trust me as they should. This worries me.
15. My parents act as if they don't want to understand some of my ideas. They don't like them, and that's that.
16. My mother and father try to leave the impression that some of my faults are very bad and that they never do wrong. This worries me.

III

17. My younger brother and I quarrel a lot because he wants to go everywhere I go.
18. My younger sister and I quarrel a lot because she wants to go everywhere I go.
19. My brother always checks up on me and tells my parents where I go and what I do.
20. My sister always checks up on me and tells my parents where I go and what I do.
21. My brother wears my clothes without my permission, and it makes me angry.
22. My sister wears my clothes without my permission, and it makes me angry.
23. I am jealous of my brother because he is more popular than I.
24. I am jealous of my sister because she is more popular than I.
25. I worry because my parents are partial to my brother.
26. I worry because my parents are partial to my sister.
27. My father and mother nearly always take different sides when we quarrel, and it worries me.
28. I worry because it seems that brothers and sisters just can't get along together without having bitter quarrels.

IV

29. My father and mother don't get along well with one another.
30. My father and mother quarrel so much I often wonder why people get married.
31. One of my problems is that my parents are divorced.

32. I am worried because my parents talk about getting a divorce.
33. I have a stepparent, and our home is not a happy one.
34. I have only one living parent, and I worry because I need the advice of both father and mother.
35. Spending money in useless ways forces my family to do without many necessary things.

V

36. I worry because I don't see enough of my parents to feel free to talk things over with them.
37. Neither of my parents is ever available when I need help, and it worries me.
38. I am worried because it seems impossible for my parents to give me any of their time.

VI

39. Living with relatives is a problem for me.
40. I have trouble with my cousin.
41. My grandparents are always trying to tell me what to do.
42. I am unhappy because what I do doesn't please my relatives, and they think I'm bad.

If you have other types of family worries, list them below.

Name_____

It should be observed that Roman numerals I, II, III, etc., divide the preceding inventory so that the problems under each parallel the types of family-relations problems described in Figure 4.

AND MORE SUGGESTIONS

Having established the family-relations problems of pupils in the school, guidance workers may proceed with guidance activities that are designed to help boys and girls solve their problems. The suggestions appearing in paragraphs to follow should be helpful. They are not exhaustive, but they are appropriate, and use of them will give rise to many other helpful devices.

It should be noted that the suggestions appearing in this section are made in relation to problems as they appear in Figure 4, but they need not necessarily be followed in the same order. Rather, guidance personnel, especially teacher-counselors, should use the suggestions that are appropriate to the problem under consideration at a given time.

The Question of Standards. Boys and girls in secondary school have disagreements with their parents on matters of standards. Having stated their problems of this type, they will be responsive to questions and activities that they may discuss and engage in that will provide them information and ways of thinking through their difficulties. The following are suggested.

1. How have standards of dress changed in the past twenty-five years?
2. What differences are there in the ways boys and girls of high-school age dressed a generation ago and now?
3. What forces operate to bring about changes in people's ways of dressing?
4. What forces operate in this community to make demands for occasional dress for boys? For girls?
5. What are the fundamental considerations in planning one's wardrobe?
6. In what ways may economies be effected and still permit one to be sensibly dressed?
7. In what ways may an entire family be concerned with problems of clothing?
8. What should be the attitude of parents regarding the matter of clothing? What should be the attitude of children?
9. Consider ways by which parents and children may come to pleasant agreements on matters of clothing. What is the role of parents? What is the child's role?
10. May we assume that as children grow older they need more clothes?
11. Suppose there are boys and girls in the same family. Consider the factors in determining the amount and kinds of clothes needed by each.
12. What seem to be the best methods of arriving at decisions on matters of standards for the various members of the family? Consider the needs of each member of the family when discussing these factors and methods.
13. With what attitudes do members of the family ordinarily present their respective sides to questions regarding such standards as dress, entertainment, choice of friends, and money? Are such questions usually settled by compromise, or does one member of the family usually win at the expense of the others?
14. Consider and discuss the factors which generally determine standards of behavior and of living in the family.
15. What are the advantages of sitting down as a family group and discussing the family budget as it applies to the entire family? Consider ways by which young people may encourage or discourage this practice.

16. What consideration should children have in the selection of friends? To what extent should high-school boys and girls consider their parents when the selection of friends is involved?

17. What are parents' chief concerns regarding their children's friends?

18. What criteria should be considered in the choice of friends and associates? Consider the advantages of discussing these points with one's parents.

19. In what ways are parents responsible for their children?

20. Is it necessary for youth to select the activities they engage in with care? Why?

21. Why are parents sometimes hesitant to tell a son or a daughter of high-school age he or she can or cannot do certain things?

22. Who is generally more likely to take the longer view when difficulties arise or when plans concerning members of the family are being made, parents or boys and girls of high-school age?

23. Students sometimes do things against their parents' will and against their own better judgment. Recall such occasions with the following questions in mind: How did I feel about my acts? What caused me to feel the way I did?

24. Perhaps some of you have had your parents' consent to do certain things which you felt later you should not have done. Consider this also. Look back upon such occasions thoughtfully for what it is worth to you.

25. How may young people in secondary school be fairly sure that their parents are "too easy with them"?

Students should be helped to understand that it is worth while to work systematically for pleasant relationships in the family. They are by no means too immature for the most part to realize that they have some obligations as members of the family. The following question may be considered with good results.

26. What may young people do to further cooperation and understanding between themselves and their parents?

Counselors will likely discover that some pupils need to be brought face to face with the process of self-analysis. When it is appropriate to do so, suggest to pupils (and this is an individual matter) that they think through the following:

1. In what specific ways do my parents and I differ with respect to standards?

2. Which of these differences worry me most? Why?

3. Am I able to talk frankly with my parents about our differences without losing my temper?

4. Is it possible for me to lose my temper and still be reasonable?
5. Do I generally take into account the possible fact that my parents are more interested in me than they sometimes seem to be?
6. Do I recognize the fact that my parents were also my age at one time and that they may know more about some of my problems than they seem to know?
7. Do I act my age around my parents, or do I frequently act quite dependent upon them so that they will not expect much of me?
8. Do I frequently kid myself by saying to myself that this or that does or does not matter when I am pretty sure I am arguing against my own better judgment?
9. Am I really honest with my parents?
10. Am I willing, even if I don't succeed at first, to try my best to sit down with my parents and talk through our differences?

It may be profitable also to suggest to certain pupils that they keep a personal diary and call it "Living with My Family." In this diary they may keep notes in answer to questions such as those above. They may also write down suggestions made by their counselor, as well as the results of those suggestions. This practice will help pupils to see that it is not wise always to trust their memory.

Lack of Understanding. It has been shown that family-relations problems frequently occur as a result of lack of understanding between parents and their children. There follow some suggestions for helping youth solve this type of problem.

1. The guide may point out to his group that many young people in secondary school worry about lack of understanding between themselves and their parents. Some examples of problems may well be given to illustrate this statement. The following question may then be raised: What seem to be the reasons for such misunderstandings?

2. Many students in high school do not feel free to discuss their personal problems with their parents. Why is this?

3. What should be the relationships between parents and their children who are in high school? After some discussion of this question, suggest that each student write down what he believes to be the kinds of relationships most desirable. Students should not sign their papers.

Develop a list of desirable relationships which may be given to students for further discussion. This question will then be appro-

priate: What can young people in high school do to promote such relationships or to help bring about such relationships where they do not exist?

4. Why do youth sometimes feel that their parents do not understand them?

May it also be assumed that parents sometimes feel that *they* are not understood by their children?

5. What are some of the conditions under which parents often have to work that tend to take their attention away from their children?

Does this necessarily mean that parents' interest in, and love for, their children decreases?

How may such conditions lead to misunderstandings between parents and children?

6. What obligations do parents have to their children? What obligations do young people in high school have as members of the family?

7. What plans may be worked out by which both parents and children may be brought together as partners in the business of living together as a family?

8. What would be the advantages to both parents and children if each did his share in establishing and maintaining relationships based upon thorough and frank understanding?

Realizing that pupils may desire to think through their own personal problems that stem from lack of understanding between themselves and their parents, and that some of them will no doubt be seeking individual counsel, suggest to them that in their "Living with My Family" diary they record such questions and ideas as the following:

1. List a few reasons why you believe that you and your parents do not understand one another. Do these reasons seem to you to be good reasons? Why? Be sure your reasons are fair to both sides.

2. Consider one of the reasons listed under (1) above and ask yourself this question: What could I have done, what might I do, to prevent such a misunderstanding?

3. Do I always really try to understand my parents?

4. Have my parents ever deceived me? Think this question through carefully.

5. Do I always "come clean" with my parents? If not, write down an example or two and study your own reasons carefully. Was it worth the price to fool them?

6. When you have the feeling that your parents do not understand you, or when you believe that you do not understand your parents, go to them and ask them to discuss the matter with you. If they are not able to meet your request immediately, ask them to set aside a little time in the near future when it is convenient for them. Then come straight to the point in as composed a way as you can. Your parents will likely appreciate your display of judgment more than you realize. They may see you then as a maturing young person with intelligence and poise rather than as a child who has been outgrowing clothes. Upon finishing your discussion with your parents, assure them that you appreciate their time and their suggestions. Assure them also that you would like them to ask you to talk things through at any time they feel they do not understand you.

Answer such questions as the following after your talks with your parents:

a. Do I understand better how my parents feel about me and my problems?

b. From the information I got by talking with my parents, are they justified in their ways of looking at my problems? Am I justified in my ways of looking at my parents' problems?

c. Do my parents and I seem to understand each other better, now that we have talked things through?

Brother-Sister Conflicts. Conflicts between siblings are not uncommon. Some, of course, are more serious than others. Intense rivalry and jealousy are evidence of the more serious conflicts between children in the same family and may have serious consequences. Whereas rivalry and jealousy frequently result in open hostility among children, adolescent siblings usually show their feelings in other ways. They tend to avoid doing things together; one may show suppressed hostility for the other by sarcastic remarks made in the presence of others; or one may establish identity with groups which have refused to accept the other or with which the second does not care to associate because he feels they are unworthy of his and his brother's or sister's association.

Having studied family-relations problems of youth in the school as suggested in preceding pages, guidance workers will have before them the nature and extent of sibling conflicts among their pupils. This information will in turn give direction for guidance activities

which are designed to help pupils with this type of problem. The following suggestions are made, however, with considerable assurance that they will prove helpful. In any event, teacher-counselors and other guidance personnel should realize the importance of keeping discussions of some of the issues on a strictly impersonal basis. Tensions resulting from sibling conflicts may otherwise cause emotional outbursts that may spoil an otherwise profitable set of experiences. Youth in a guidance situation should never be placed on the defensive.

Problems and issues in sibling relationships may well be thought through in terms of questions and activities such as the following:

1. What should characterize the relationships between brothers of high-school age?
2. What should characterize the relationships between sisters of high-school age?
3. What should characterize the relationships between brother and sister of high-school age?
4. What effects does difference in age ordinarily have upon relationships between brothers? Between sisters? Between brother and sister?
5. What do boys usually do for entertainment between the ages of, say, fourteen and eighteen? What are the things that girls in the same age bracket usually do?
6. How may differences in standards of entertainment at different ages give rise to conflicts between children of high-school age in the same family?
7. How may differences in other standards cause boys and girls of high-school age to have conflicts with brothers and sisters?
8. Do young people of high-school age have obligations to their brothers or sisters who are near their ages? What effects would age have on such matters?
9. What are some of the effects likely to result from constant and serious disagreement between young people in the same family?
10. In what ways may young people in the same family work out some of their disagreements agreeably? Discuss the merits of these suggestions.
11. What is jealousy?
12. How may one recognize a jealous person?
13. From your viewpoint, what are the chief causes of jealousy?
14. Do you know of causes of jealousy that are not worth the worry? Consider these causes. Why do people become emotional about them?
15. Do you know of anything that one should be jealous of? Consider

the suggestions made. May one be jealous of something without being emotionally upset? What, for example?

16. Why are people sometimes jealous of other members of the family? (The guidance person should expect to hear partiality given as one of the reasons. Be prepared to handle the situation with aplomb.)

17. Is it easy or difficult to detect evidences of partiality? (The guidance person should be able to direct consideration of this question with a high degree of objectivity.)

18. Do you know of parents who seem to favor one child over another? Think carefully and see if you can understand why parents seem to show partiality. What are the characteristics of the children involved?

19. When one seems to be losing favor with his parents or friends, is it wise to ask himself the question: How could my behavior be the cause of other people's attitudes toward me?

20. When conflicts arise as a result of jealousy and partiality, how may the persons concerned go about correcting the difficulty?

21. What do you think of the attitude of those who sometimes say, "I'll go halfway, but not a bit more?"

22. You have probably heard people say, "I can forgive but never forget." What do you think about this?

23. Is a grudge ever worth holding? Why or why not?

There follow a few self-study activities that may be suggested to students for inclusion in their "Living with My Family" diary.

1. List the most annoying difficulties you have with your brother or sister.

2. Take one of the problems, study it, and try to determine reasons for its occurrence. Write the reasons, being certain you are aware that there are two sides to the question.

3. Consider the difference in your age and that of your brother or sister. Find out what such a difference may make in the ways young people think and act. Ask your counselor to help you find information about growing up. Write down a few of the most important points you discover.

Discuss these points with your counselor and parents if you can.

4. When disagreements occur between you and your brother or sister, try to arrange a convenient time and place to discuss your problems. Remember, it may be just as much a problem for your brother or sister as it is for you. Make it a pleasant discussion, even if you appear to be yielding more than your share. Do not make just one attempt and give up. Discuss your problems many times over, always remembering that a difference in age may have a great deal to do with the thinking and be-

havior of your brother or sister. You might like to keep a record of your talks with your brother or sister. Here is one way you can do this:

a. My talk with my brother or sister on _____ (date) was okay _____, not okay _____ (check which). Reason:

b. My talk with my brother or sister on _____ (date) was okay _____, not okay _____ (check which), but I noticed this about him or her that I did not know before:

5. Do I arrange my program of entertainment to fit into the plans of my brother or sister? _____ Should I? _____ Why or why not? _____

6. If you are older than your brother or sister, suggest that he or she go out with you occasionally. On such occasions be attentive and show him or her a good time. You have no idea how delightful it may be for a younger brother or sister to have the attention of an older brother or sister. Permit your younger brother or sister to ask questions. After all, you are older and more experienced; and your younger brother or sister may need your information. Then jot down a few points in answer to the question: How am I doing with my younger brother or sister?

7. If you are younger than your brother or sister, ask him or her if you may go out together now and then. Say frankly that you prefer to have him or her "show you around" than someone else, that you would like to learn from your brother or sister. But remember this: You should not be persistent, and you should not be peeved if your older brother or sister refuses to take you along each time you want to go. After going out with your older brother or sister, jot down a few points in answer to the question: How am I doing with my brother or sister?

Be sure to thank your brother or sister for the opportunity to be out together. It is important to be courteous.

Bad Relations between Parents; Broken Home; Neglect. In some homes parents are incompatible, some homes are broken, in still others the improvident or wasteful nature of one or both parents is a cause of worry among boys and girls. In any case, these are very personal matters calling for emphasis upon individual guidance and counseling in the majority of instances. The suggestions made in connection with this three-pronged type of family-relations problem are designed to advance all phases of counseling and guidance.

Group consideration of husband-wife attitudes is important. Sometimes this is carried on in connection with a course of instruction in family relations. In other instances, the homeroom, under the direction of a competent teacher-counselor, is given over to study of family relations. We hold no brief for one or the other. Our concern

is that something be done to help young people face with as much information and intelligence as possible the situations with which they are now confronted, thus preparing them for the responsibilities they soon will find it necessary to assume as husbands and wives. Perhaps the most important contribution the school can make is that of helping youth develop a system of values and ways of thinking about the home and the family and their inherent worth in terms of human happiness and welfare. This implies helping youth to achieve a degree of emotional maturity required of successful homemakers. Such questions as these may be considered:

1. What factors underlie the development of the family ideal?
2. Why is the family important?
3. In terms of human relationships, what are some goals toward which husbands and wives should work? What is the husband's role? What is the wife's role?
4. Consider the status of the family consisting only of husband and wife. Contrast this family with the family consisting of parents and children. Contrast these two families in as many ways as possible.
5. Do children increase or lessen the possibility of friction between husband and wife? Why?
6. Consider with youth some of the more basic reasons for incompatibility between husbands and wives. Properly informed, the counselor can present these, together with some of the effects upon children, in a most helpful manner.
7. Consider with students this question: In what ways may young people of high-school age increase or lessen possibilities for friction between parents?

There are boys and girls in nearly every secondary school whose homes are broken either by death or by separation of their parents. Irrespective of the causes, youngsters in broken homes often feel depressed. They miss the contact with the missing parent. The orphaned child understands that death has taken its toll. The youth whose parents are living apart is frequently unable to understand his plight so well. He is sometimes the object of ridicule. In other instances he may be snubbed socially because his parents have failed matrimonially. In any case, it is not infrequent that a child from a broken home shows both disappointment and resentment. The conditions at home which bring about his difficulties are serious enough.

Still worse may be forces outside the home—sometimes in the school—which tend to magnify the torment already known by the person involved.

Good judgment suggests that to penalize certain youth because of circumstances for which they were not responsible, and about which they can do little or nothing, is to place a sorry value upon human personality. Boys and girls from broken homes are cases in point. Guidance personnel should therefore recognize that youth's problems born of broken homes do not lend themselves well to group consideration, first, because such problems are so intimate that group study of them would be likely to persecute certain pupils, and second, because there can be no common feeling between the majority and the relatively few who represent broken homes. Thus it may be seen that in the case of the child from a broken home, the guidance worker has a personal problem to deal with that must be treated impersonally at first. The following procedures are suggested for situations of this kind:

1. Get acquainted with the child. Study his records, his interests, and his likes and dislikes, observe his behavior in as many situations as possible, and know some of his problems.

2. Cultivate his friendship and merit his confidence. This may be done by showing a warm, friendly attitude toward him and by treating him with genuine respect at all times.

3. Make it convenient to let the pupil know how much you appreciate him. Compliment him when he does well and encourage him when he does not do so well. Offer assistance with a degree of sincerity that will cause him to ask for guidance.

4. Discover the pupil's strong points and assist in providing opportunities for him to demonstrate his abilities in a variety of ways. This will help the pupil to discover his own best qualities and at the same time cause other pupils to regard him in light of his better traits.

5. Help the pupil to find his place among his peers. Approval by his fellows will help him to solve many of his problems.

Some students in high school feel that they are victims of the worst sort of neglect because parents who earn enough to keep them in fair comfort squander their earnings. Still other pupils come from families whose incomes are too low to permit a decent standard of living. These youth, because of the circumstances under which they

live, are often in conflict with society and its institutions, including the school. Let us briefly explain this statement.

That there are different economic-social-cultural strata in our society there seems little room for doubt. This does not mean that there are fixed differentiations, with no possibility for a person to cross over from one stratum to another. Indeed, America's vast public-school system is an outgrowth of the ideal that the avenues of progress should be kept open for every individual, avenues by which the individual may develop his capacities for a richer, more productive life. There is evidence to show, however, that for a pupil to cross over from a social stratum which is characterized by poverty, by lack of respect for the property of others, and by moral values and conduct which are different from those which characterize the next higher stratum on the economic-social-cultural scale, he must adopt the ways of the latter. It is an interesting phenomenon that in most secondary schools pupils may be found representing nearly every stratum of society in the community.¹⁵ Interesting also is what appears to be a fact that in these same schools the culture pattern is dominantly middle class. As Havighurst and Taba ¹⁶ write:

The moral standards of the adolescent peer culture are largely middle-class standards set by the high school, which is, in turn, run by people with middle-class values. The teachers are nearly all middle-class people and so are the parents who are most active in school affairs The dominant adolescent group in the high school is composed mainly of middle-class girls and boys.

In any event, the dominant standards in most secondary schools are not set by adolescents representing the lowest level of the economic-social-cultural scale for the whole community. The plight of the youngster at the lower end of the social-cultural bracket may be shown by taking the case of Red.

Red's father is a semiskilled workman. He works most of the time, but he is not able to provide his family of six more than a bare living. Red's mother is hard put to "keep this shack halfway clean and a little something fixed for the children to eat when they come in, and sometimes they don't." She added further that "It's heart-breaking that the kids don't have decent clothes and lunch money."

¹⁵ Exceptions are to be found particularly in large cities, where some schools are populated exclusively by children from slum areas.

¹⁶ *Op. cit.*, p. 36.

Red's parents "try to do right" by the children. They "don't have much to do with the church any more," but they still fear a wrathful God, and they bring this wrath down upon the children at the least provocation. Discipline is harsh in Red's home, and harsh discipline meted out by such people is frequently inconsistent as to purpose. The results, of course, are bad. For example, Red said, "My gosh, you just can't take it. I started lying about where I got things and what I had been doing to try to keep from taking beatings. I never have liked it, though. It's not right." Red was fifteen at the time.

As may be expected, Red's parents expressly believe that "you ought to tell the truth no matter how bad it hurts." Pressed a little, however, they admitted that they falsified "now and then when some of the do-gooders who have everything come poking around. Take Old Man X. He bleats about the needy, and he gets his name in the paper about helping the poor, hut he ain't kidding anybody but himself. The only way you can get anything out of him and his kind is to take it. That's what *they* do." An eye for an eye, perhaps?

What about school? Red's mother said, "Well, we've struggled to keep the kids in school. But Red, the oldest, is getting mighty dissatisfied. He ought to be learning something that will help him make a living, but him and his father say he's not getting it up there. A little shop, I think, but not much. We've about decided to let him quit school soon as he can without having the law after him. At least that's what his dad thinks he should do. But I don't know what the child would do. He couldn't make a living, and he'd go to the dogs. It's funny that the school won't let him quit without hounding him and us to death. Still and all they don't act like they care much whether he's there or not, the way he's treated. It's the money he brings in from the state, I guess. I hear that the state pays the school, I don't know how much, for each kid as long as he goes to school."

Red has above-average intelligence. His record in elementary school was satisfactory. He was known by his teachers as a "good child." Since entering high school, Red says, "My attitude has changed. I liked school all right before coming up here. Liked the kids and the teachers. They were okay. But I don't know. Something's happened to me. I can't figure it out. Kids I played with a couple of years ago don't want to be around me any more, except the kids like me who don't have anything much. Sure, I go around with them. What else can I do? You just can't go around by your-

self all the time. But it's no good. They know it, too, most of them. But there is nothing else to do."

Red was asked about school functions—dances, parties, clubs, athletics, and other activities. He thought a moment and answered, "Well, the boys in our crowd maybe get a little better break than the girls, that is, if they are athletes. Me, I'm not. Not big enough. But take Bill. He's a good football player, gonna be a dandy. Gets his name in the paper. The kids all cheer for him at rallies, but they don't care a hoot about him. He has the same friends I have. If we go to a school party, we stand around or dance with the kids we're with all the time anyway. If we join a club, we don't have anything to do with it. We don't get in a play, except when a whole crowd of kids are needed to rush out on the stage and make noise for a minute or two. Most of us don't go for that."

Obviously Red and his counterparts were living on the fringe of a dominant peer culture in the school, and they were not accepted by the dominant group for rather obvious reasons. But for the work of a counselor, Red and his friends might have become statistics on the school's records and very real youth problems for community officials outside the school. Some of the things this counselor did and worked to achieve may well be recommended to others as guidance services for a particular group of youth. His attitude and activities included the following:

1. Thorough study and analysis was made of the home and community environment of each pupil in the lower income bracket.
2. Each pupil's school record was brought up to date and made usable, including the results of tests ranging in type from personality and social adjustment to those of the standard achievement variety.
3. Adjustments in pupils' school subjects were effected, and extra-class activities were designed to meet the needs of these young people.
4. Community forces were contacted and organized to provide part-time work for needy boys and girls. It was felt that these young people had skills that were needed in the shops and businesses in the community, and that they needed the feeling of dignity which the performance of a useful task provides. Furthermore, once each month a school edition of "Who's Who in Business" was published. In each edition appeared pictures of three boys and three girls,

together with a description of their work, comments by their employers, advancements earned, and similar information. Employers and the local press financed this project.

Guidance workers can safely assume that the majority of youth from low-income homes need most the feeling that they are accepted as people of worth and the opportunity to work toward goals which, when achieved, will better their lot in life. One of the major functions of guidance is that of providing opportunities for them to achieve worth-while goals that are immediately achievable. They need the feeling of success.

No Time for Children. As was shown by presentation of youth's family-relations problems in the first part of this chapter, some of them worry because they have too little time with their parents. Numerically, this type of problem does not appear on the surface to be of major consequence. But viewed in light of its total relationship to the over-all problem of the family and its influence upon the life of the child, the problem takes on significance.

Consideration of other aspects of the general problem of family relations will lead naturally to the question of time for parent-child relationships. The guidance worker may then suggest that some youth are known to worry because they have so little time with their parents. He may also present some of the evidence that points to the desirability of companionship between parents and their children. Questions and suggestions such as those that follow may be considered advantageously.

1. Suggest that each pupil determine the average amount of time members of his family work each week.

2. How much time is spent by members of the family in doing the things which are ordinarily incidental to maintaining a home but for which there is no salary?

3. How much time each week is left for recreation and for leisure, after work and other necessary activities are completed?

4. Most families conform to a routine pattern of living. Are activities of the family geared so that parents and children may be together, say, for an evening? Consider with students the possibilities for such an arrangement.

5. Find out how often youth and their parents do things together just for fun. Discover the kinds of activities pupils and their parents

share in for pleasure. Discuss the advantages of spending some of one's leisure time with parents.

6. Determine the extent to which pupils suggest to parents that they do things together. If pupils seldom or never take the initiative and ask parents to do things with them, try to find out why they do not.

7. Raise this question with pupils: Do you think it possible that fathers and mothers sometimes hesitate to suggest doing things with their high-school boys and girls for fear they will be refused?

8. Permit students to discuss this statement: It is flattering to most parents to have their teen-age son or daughter ask them to share their leisure time.

Problem Relatives. The conditions under which some children live often disclose a variety of family combinations. Among the problems of youth, therefore, which grow out of family relationships, there are instances where family life must be considered in a broader sense than the immediate group of father, mother, and child or children. In more instances than is often realized, the family also includes one or both grandparents, in-laws, cousins, aunts, and uncles. Again, there may be steprelations: parents, brothers, and sisters. Not infrequently are to be found pupils who live with relatives and who have little or no opportunity really to know their parents even if they are living.

Guidance personnel should give close attention to family structure when studying pupil personnel. It is often necessary for them to go beyond the ordinary information obtained from pupils when they register in the school to determine the structure of the family. Pupils will not always record all the details regarding people in their household, even when information blanks call for them.

Students who have problems that stem from conflicts with relatives will usually reveal these difficulties when given the opportunity to do so. They should be analyzed carefully with the view of determining sources of tension. Such study and analysis will likely show, first, that pupils who have problems because of their relationships with relatives usually come from homes in the lower income bracket; second, that they are not socially well adjusted; and third, that they need the sympathetic understanding of adult school personnel. Suggestions about guidance made in connection with other types of

family-relations problems of youth will to some extent, of course, prove effective in this connection. But most of all, young people need individual counsel and guidance by adults who understand their problems and are genuinely interested in them as individual personalities. Personnel workers should strive to meet this need of pupils.

It is suggested finally, in connection with the larger problem of family relations, that guidance people recognize that some parents are incapable by reason of ability or of character, or both, of providing their children with emotional security. The factor of economics may or may not be present in such cases. In any event, the school is obligated to provide an environment that meets in as large measure as possible the emotional needs of pupils which are not met in the home.

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CHAPTER 4 *Problems in the Use of Time*

Pupils' problems in the use of time are closely related to those described in the two preceding chapters. Social problems and problems which have their origin in home and family life quite logically lead to a consideration of the time element as it bears upon such difficulties. Moreover, boys and girls in secondary school presented their problems in the use of time in such ways that they combined to form the third-ranking set of difficulties about which these young people worry.

YOUTH'S TIME PROBLEMS

It is important at the outset to know the nature of pupils' time problems. While examining these, it is also well for guidance workers to bear in mind that they came freely and directly from secondary-school students. There was no suggestion on the part of the investigators to give young people the slightest hint that time might be an important factor in their lives. Accordingly, problems in the use of time are presented by type, by age, and by sex in Figure 5 just as they were identified by pupils.

As indicated by Figure 5, students in secondary school have four intimately related types of time problems. These are (1) budgeting time, (2) how to study, (3) how best to spend leisure time, and (4) the time-consuming nature of school subjects. Boys and girls alike worry about these problems. As was pointed out in Chapter 1, between 51 and 52 per cent of the total of 4,957 students who named their most pressing worries were girls. The percentage distribution between the sexes shown by Figure 5 therefore reveals that boys and girls are almost equally concerned about problems in the use of

time. Again, there is a consistent relationship between the total number of students fourteen, fifteen, sixteen, and seventeen years of age and the frequency with which students in these age groups mention time problems. Approximately 91 per cent of the total number of students included in the present study were in the fourteen- to seventeen-year age bracket. A little calculation will show that 90 per

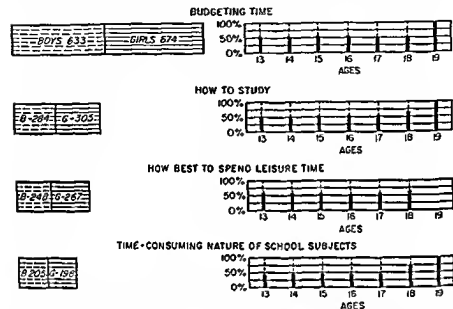


FIG. 5. Distribution of 2,814 references to four types of problems in the use of time about which youth worry most, by sex (left); and percentage ratios of responses of girls to boys, by age (right).

cent of the total of 2,814 problems in the use of time were reported by young people in this age group.

Let us take each of the four types of time problems in order and examine them more carefully.

Budgeting Time. Youth mentioned budgeting time as a problem 1,307 times. Need for assistance in budgeting their time was expressed by 633 boys and 674 girls. This, the time problem given greatest emphasis by secondary-school pupils, was typically stated in the following ways:

Trying to make the time I have stretch over all I have to do is my problem. [Boy, 13]

I need someone to help me budget my time. [Girl, 15]

Just when I think I have my time budgeted so that I can get my work done, everyone piles on more work. It looks as if there should be a little cooperation. [Boy, 17]

How can I budget my time? I am told to do that, but no one tells me how. This is a problem. [Girl, 14]

Is it possible for teachers to help us budget our time? I try, but mostly it doesn't do any good because nobody is consistent in what they expect you to do. [Girl, 17]

Making my time-ends meet is one of my greatest worries. [Girl, 16]

The pressure is on all around. I try to plan my time so that everything will be taken care of, but I just don't know how to do it. This is what worries me. [Boy, 16]

My day is so crowded that I get lost. I need someone to help me make a timetable. [Boy, 15]

I've been told many times to plan my days, budget my time. I work out a plan, and then it is impossible to work it. It seems as if there are too many people at school and everywhere else to tell you what to do to make a time plan work. I'd give up if I didn't care, but as it is I keep on trying because I want to make something of myself. This is one of my most trying problems. [Boy, 17]

How to Study. A close relative of the problem of budgeting time is that of how to study. Indeed, the one might well grow out of the other. The 284 boys and 305 girls who listed how to study as one of their major worries clearly indicated by their statements that the time factor figured in their thinking. Note how they state this type of problem.

Sometimes I work on my lessons for hours and find out that I don't know how to study well enough. This is a problem for me. [Girl, 14]

Is it possible to teach people how to study? It would save me a lot of valuable time if I knew how. [Boy, 15]

A world of time could be saved if I were taught how to study as well as what to study. [Boy, 16]

I spend most of my time in high school trying to figure out how to study what my teachers tell me to study. My grades are good, but I feel that I waste a lot of time I could use profitably. [Girl, 16]

One of my greatest problems is how to study. How can I improve? [Boy, 17]

I wish I knew how to study. I spend more time trying to figure out how to study some of my lessons than it takes to do them. [Girl, 15]

Everything is new to me this year, and I don't know how to study what I have to learn. I need to know how. [Boy, 13]

When you get into a new subject or a new topic I find that you can't study it as you can other subjects, and it worries me. I don't know if it's possible, but if we could be taught how to study it would be a big help. [Boy, 17]

How Best to Spend Leisure Time. Young people in secondary school are indeed aware that they have some time on their hands—time they would like to spend in ways that are personally satisfying. The frequency of mention of this type of problem, 515, places it in a position of prominence among youth's time worries. Moreover, boys and girls seem to open the way for constructive guidance in the use of leisure time when they say:

One of my biggest problems is how to use my spare time profitably. [Girl, 15]

I would like to know ways of spending my leisure time so that I won't feel it has been wasted. [Boy, 16]

Going to the show or night club gives you just about nothing but an evening out. I'd like to know how I can spend spare time wisely. [Girl, 16]

How can I spend my free time without always having to go out with somebody? [Boy, 17]

I would like to know a number of things that would be good for me to do in my spare time. [Girl, 14]

How can I find or create something worth while to do in my spare time at home? [Boy, 15]

It isn't convenient to always be in a group, so what can I do that is entertaining and worth while when I'm alone?—And I like to be alone at times. [Boy, 16]

I'd like to know how to select good things to read in my spare time. [Boy, 15]

My greatest problem is how to use my free time well. We students get into a routine like a merry-go-round. We go around the same circle and come out at the same place over and over. I go and try to have fun, but I feel that nearly always I am frittering away my time. I'd like to know things to do that have value. [Girl, 17]

It is encouraging to observe that pupils' statements of problems about use of their leisure time, expressed so well by the quotations above, reveal a basic desire for activities of value. This is all the more encouraging because of the belief held by a great many adults

in and out of the teaching profession that "the more useless the activity the wider its appeal" among adolescents.

The Time-consuming Nature of School Subjects. The last-named time problem youth come to grips with is the time-consuming nature of school subjects. Upon reading boys' and girls' statements of this problem, one is inclined to think that perhaps many secondary-school teachers have not changed their practices so much in the past twenty-five years as we sometimes want to believe. Or perhaps in more recent years secondary-school teachers are "tightening up" as a means of convincing "conservative" groups that all this talk about "progressivism" is unfounded as far as the secondary school is concerned. Youth's problems in connection with school subjects as time consumers are revealed here as pupils write them:

I like my teachers, but if they would pay more attention to how to get work done and less attentioo to giving us more work to do, we would be helped a lot. [Girl, 16]

My teachers almost always douhle outside work over week ends and holidays. This is a difficult problem for me because I doo't know how to do some of the work. [Boy, 16]

I am never at my best when I am in school because my teachers give such loog assignments and so many books to read outside class that I never get to hed early enough to get enough sleep. [Boy, 15]

If teachers would get together on their assignments it would help us. Every subject is the *only* subject, it seems. [Girl, 17]

I hate to cheat, hut my lesson assignments are so long that at times I have to get by (for example, when I have too many books to read I get someone else to read one for me). [Boy, 17]

Some of my teachers make such long assignments that they can't hear the lesson at the next class period, and they wind up hy making another long assignment in a hurry. [Boy, 16]

I have such long assignments that I can't get them without studying late every night. My mother and daddy are not very well educated, and I have to get my lessons by myself. [Girl, 14]

Why do schoolbooks have to be so hig? Three of my teachers say they just have to give us longer assignments or we can't get through what we are supposed to cover this year. [Boy, 14]

Each teacher gives too much homework in her subject and fails to realize that some of us have four other subjects besides hers in which we also have an extra amount of homework. [Girl, 16]

No wonder some of the work we turn in is pretty light stuff. Our lesson

assignments are long, and we have to do most of them at home (when we can do them), and there are so many papers to write that we can't do much except dash them off. Then we are told how sorry they are. It seems to me you learn just as much by writing one sorry paper as you do by writing a dozen. It doesn't make sense. I plan to be a teacher, but not the kind we have. I'm going to teach kids, not just give them long assignments and then check to see whether they've done them right. [Boy, 16]

Thus youth's problems in the use of time may be seen. Examination of these inevitably forces one to recognize, first, that pupils' time problems, particularly those having to do with budgeting, how to study, and the time demands of school subjects, are inseparable, and, second, that young people are aware that going to school is the major consideration in their lives among those things they *must* do. School is indeed the locus of their activities for a large portion of each year, thus demanding that all other things they do be arranged to conflict as little as possible with school and schooling.

TIME IS IMPORTANT

Successful living depends largely upon how time is used. Business and professional people, skilled and unskilled workers, politicians, promoters, farmers, and all others are more or less aware of the importance of planning in terms of hours, days, weeks, months, and even years. Each strives to a greater or lesser degree to utilize time in ways that are most profitable. The calendar is watched with a careful eye. The clock hurries the bulk of the population around day by day.

People usually report to their places of work at given hours, and they leave at given times. As a rule they plan the day's activities, knowing that certain things must be done on schedule. They also plan in terms of extrawork activities which contribute so much to the good life. Time for reading, time for attending social functions, time for engaging in activities that are purely recreational and personally satisfying in nature, and time for the pursuit of avocational interests must be scheduled in keeping with the demands of life. Problems of time vary with individuals and with groups, but they are always present. They may be serious or trifling, but they are present in some degree in every walk of life.

TEACHERS, PUPILS, AND TIME

Teachers as a group are especially conscious of time. They have many and varied duties that must be scheduled with care. In addition to regular classroom teaching, teachers are frequently called upon to supervise study halls, to direct homeroom activities, to assume class and club sponsorships, to work as members of committees, to direct cocurricular or extracurricular activities, to supervise social functions sponsored by the school, to lead and add stimulus to money-raising campaigns, and to do many other similar things. Add to teachers' school duties those which are incident to homemaking, to the living of a normal life, and to keeping abreast professionally, and it is easy to see that they are busy people.

Just as teachers recognize the importance of time in their own lives, they frequently sense the fact that time also affects pupils in their classes. One of the most readily observable effects is the poor grade. For example, one hundred secondary-school teachers were asked this question: "What is the most notable effect of time as you see it as a factor in the lives of your pupils?" In answer to this question, ninety-four said "Poor grades"; three said "Confusion," because pupils had too many choices of things to do; two teachers stated that time was no factor other than that school opened and closed at certain hours five days each week and pupils knew it; and one simply said "Wastefulness."¹

It is practically a universal requirement that teachers report periodically the grades of their pupils, and most of them give some poor and failing marks. Some teachers say they are required to give poor and failing grades to a certain percentage of their pupils; others somehow believe they should give some poor and failing grades in the interest of maintaining "high standards"; while still others give poor and failing grades and then wonder whether they have done the right thing in every case. One teacher questioned in the study cited above made a statement which may be heard over and over again among secondary-school teachers. He said, "I always have a feeling of uncertainty, if not outright guilt, when I turn in a poor or a failing grade. Of course, there are many different circumstances and factors that influence teaching and learning, but time seems to

¹ From an unpublished study by Wilson Little, 1919.

me to be one of the most significant of these. I firmly believe that most of the pupils in my classes who are given poor or failing grades could do creditable work if given a little more time."

Bells Must Ring. The fact that the school is operated by a time system is more evidence of the importance attached to time. Authorities provide a school day which is generally six to seven hours long, including intermissions. Schedules and assignments are made accordingly, the belief being that such a day provides ample time for regular school activities. Teachers' assignments for each school day usually include five regular class periods of teaching, sometimes more, but seldom less. In almost every variant case, balances are struck by assigning "equivalent" responsibilities in the interest of "normalcy" in teacher loads.

There are limitations within which each pupil has to operate during the school day. In most secondary schools there is an established minimum number of class hours per day for all regular students. It is also standard procedure to rule that a pupil shall not meet more than a certain fixed maximum number of class hours each day. This means that students in most secondary schools must enroll in no less than a certain number of courses, and that they may not take more than the fixed maximum subject load. Again, it is not uncommon that pupils in secondary school are limited as to the number of extra-class activities they may participate in during the course of the school year.

Bells ring in and ring out school days, which in turn combine to make up semesters and the school year. Operating within administrative controls, teachers and pupils work against time. Time for teaching, time for study, time for examinations, time for securing data and making reports to proper authorities, deadlines for written work, and a host of other time concerns are evident in the daily routine of teaching and learning. Teachers feel that they must get certain things done on time, and this feeling is reflected in practices. For example, it is not infrequent that the press of time motivates teachers to "count off" a few points when students' papers are not in on time. The antithesis of this practice is that of "allowing" a few points for getting papers in before the deadline.

To illustrate further, the stock argument advanced by secondary-school teachers against individualized instruction is lack of time. Again, teachers frequently make longer assignments than they be-

beve practicable in order to "cover" textbook materials or those outlined in courses of study. It is not the purpose here to argue the merits or the demerits of such practices. These illustrations are given for the express purpose of pointing out the fact that teachers are time-conscious to a notable degree.

Pupils Thrice Involved. While teachers operate largely within the broader time controls set by administrative officers and by themselves, students in secondary school are thrice involved. First, there is the school day, to which their courses and schedules conform; second, each teacher has requirements with time limits, and pupils must try to meet these requirements; and third, pupils are subject to out-of-school controls which often demand heavily of their time.

Youth cannot be expected to respond to the several demands for their unstinted time with the judgment of mature people. The question is not who has first call upon young people. For example, those who ore inclined to insist that school requirements must always be given first consideration contend that satisfaction of these requirements satisfies oll the needs of youth. Such a contention is based upon a false premise. School is important, but, for that matter, so is the home ond so is the community. They are all important in the lives of pupils; all ore necessary to youth's full development. But one will depreciate as an influence in the lives of pupils when it is not working harmoniously and coordinately with the others. By the same token, each gathers much of its strength from the others. It is reasonable to helieve, therefore, that pupils' lives are often more complicated as a result of independent planning of activities primarily for young people, some of which have strong appeal among youth, by the school, the home, and other agents in the community.

THE SCHOOL'S RESPONSIBILITY

It should be emphasized that the school, because of its unique character, occupies a most favorable position for helping youth solve their time problems. The school figures largely in the daily lives of pupils for nine or ten months of each year. It is to the school that most young people go, by compulsion or otherwise, five days each week during this period. Consequently, they must try to arrange all other activities—part-time work, home duties, travel, entertainment—to conflict as little as possible with school. Again, high-school stu-

dents who look forward to another year or more of schooling frequently plan their summers in ways that are designed to supplement school experiences. As a matter of fact, school figures so prominently in the lives of most children that their chief work for twelve years is that of getting a public-school education. But public-school education means more than book learning. From the point of view of the school it means looking professionally into the very lives of pupils for purposes of (1) discovering the influences and the factors which combine to shape the environment of each; (2) determining each pupil's relations and status in his life environment; (3) examining each pupil's capacities for learning and his potentialities for satisfactory adjustment to his life-environment, thereby establishing pupil needs to be met by the school; and (4) adjusting curriculum content, methods of teaching, guidance, and all other school services and activities so that they harmonize one with another and with pupils' needs for what may be simply stated as "the right kind of education."

Since time is such an obvious factor in the lives of youth, both within and outside school, it is permissible once again to use the somewhat hackneyed but nonetheless true statement that the secondary school is obligated to provide its pupils with instruction and guidance in the wise use of time. This obligation includes and goes beyond "worthy use of leisure time," as has already been shown in this chapter. Furthermore, the very nature of pupils' time worries demands that they be given attention by the entire school staff.

GETTING MORE INFORMATION

It was suggested in the chapter "Youth's Social Problems" that each secondary school seek to determine the nature of youth's worries by use of the unguided, or free-response, technique. Having done this, guidance workers and teachers should study the results again to fix clearly in mind the extent and nature of pupils' problems in the use of time. Every person who has anything to do with pupils should be concerned about these problems as they relate to the school as a whole. It is very likely that in any given school pupils' problems in the use of time will correspond closely to those described in preceding pages of this chapter. But this is not enough. It is also necessary (1) to identify the time problems of each pupil

and (2) to study each pupil's problems in the use of time in relation to his activities in and out of school.

Identifying Each Pupil's Problems. A time-conscious corps of personnel should have little difficulty in identifying the time worries of individual pupils in the school. An effective device to be used in this connection is an inventory which includes the several types of problems that pupils are known to worry about. The problems should be grouped according to type for the convenience of guidance personnel, using Roman numerals I, II, etc., to identify those classified as budgeting time, how to study, and so on. An example follows.

TO STUDENTS

Time Does March On

And each of us can work with time or against it. If we work with time, we can win. If we work mostly *against* time, we are tossed around aimlessly, much as a leaf in the wind, and we lose.

Time has an odd way of treating everyone alike. It is how a person uses time that counts. No one can take all the time he wants for everything he wants to do. This being true, each person needs to decide *what* he must do and learn *how* to use time so he may do other things he *wants* to do.

Everyone has problems in the use of time. Fortunately, we now know some ways of learning how to work *with* time. But before anyone can be helped, it is necessary to know exactly what his time problems are.

Those listed below are time problems students generally worry about. Read them and place a check like this ✓ before those with which you would like some help. It will take only a few moments. Then something can be done about helping you.

I

1. It seems that I never have time to do the things I must do.
2. There are so many things to do that I have trouble when I try to plan my activities.
3. I do not know how to budget my time wisely.
4. I try to budget my time but it doesn't work because I never know what to expect in the way of assignments by my teachers or parents.

II

5. I feel that I waste a lot of time because I don't know how to study some of my lessons.

6. It often takes me as long or longer to figure out how to study some of my lessons than it takes to do them.
7. I pass my courses but I feel that I waste a lot of time because I don't know how to study well enough.
8. I would like to have someone help me learn how to study so that I can do better in school.

III

9. I often feel that I spend my spare time in useless ways.
10. I'd like to know how I can spend my leisure time wisely.
11. I'd like to know how to choose worth-while things to do in my spare time.
12. I get tired of doing the same things over and over again for recreation.
13. I feel that when I have some free time there are not many really good things to do for pleasure and recreation.
14. I would like to know how to do many interesting things for fun when I have the time.
15. I would like to know how to find good books to read at home.
16. I would like to know about things I can do for pleasure at home so I won't feel that I must be going somewhere all the time.

IV

17. Some of my teachers give such long assignments that we can't get through them the next day at class, and understand them.
18. It seems to me that extra work in all my classes piles up at the same time. This keeps me from doing any of my work as well as I think I should.
19. I have to study late every night just to try to get by. No one can help me with my lessons at my house.
20. I often have homework that I can't do. Sometimes I get help, but I don't understand it very well.
21. Besides long homework assignments, some of my teachers assign so many books to be read outside the class that I never get enough sleep.
22. I can get some of my homework by myself, such as reading a story for English. But some of it I can't get by myself, for example, math.
23. It worries me that we have so many papers to write without any help. We just write them and turn them in and wonder what grade we'll get on them. I don't seem to get any better.
24. Some of my schoolbooks are so long that we have to hurry all the time just to get through them during the year, and I don't understand books we go through so fast.
25. My lesson assignments are often made in such a hurry that I do not understand what I am supposed to do and how I'm supposed to do it.

Name _____

Time and Out-of-school Activities of Pupils. The business of teachers is to help people become educated. But unless they are

careful, they slip unconsciously into a state of mind that suggests, first, that pupils have negligible educative experiences outside the school; second that pupils ought always to subordinate every need, desire, and purpose to that of doing well the bidding of directors of learning; and third, that pupils' concerns about their progress in school subjects should constitute their chief worries.

Everyone who has anything to do with the educational upbringing of youth should correct his thinking on these matters. The weight of evidence suggests, first, that the out-of-school experiences of pupils are educationally indispensable. It would be nothing short of a national tragedy to attempt to "educate" even one generation of secondary-school youth while isolating them from the outside world. Second, the very best secondary school cannot claim the distinction of meeting adequately the needs of each pupil enrolled therein. And a major criterion of "adequacy" in the sense used here has as its basis the extent to which schools recognize and utilize the out-of-school experiences of pupils. Third, progress in school subjects is more often than not among the least of youth's worries.

Let us, then, neither avoid reality nor bridle in its presence. The wise course is rather to explore the avenues of pupils' lives outside the school. It is only by searching diligently that personnel workers can discover the circumstances of each pupil's life that demand his time. This information, together with a thorough study of each student's in-school activities, his accomplishments, his capacities, and his potentialities, should be acquired by all concerned with the education and guidance of pupils.

It is suggested that each school proceed systematically to determine, first, the kinds of out-of-school activities engaged in by pupils, and second, the amount of time, as accurately as can be estimated, devoted to these. For practical purposes, the out-of-school activities of students may be grouped into the following major categories:

1. Those which youth feel obligated to engage in regularly, such as
 - a. *Home duties*
 - b. *Part-time work*
 - c. *Religious or church-affiliated activities*
 - d. *Scouting*
2. Those engaged in to satisfy a personal interest, such as
 - a. *Hobbies*

- b. Study of music, dancing, dramatics, etc.
3. Those engaged in for social-recreational purposes
 - a. Social clubs
 - b. Parties
 - c. Dancing
 - d. Shows

These divisions may be altered to suit the purposes of a given school. Certainly the lists in each major category should be extended greatly, with each subdivision including several activities (hobbies, for example).

Each school staff should be reminded that there is no rule-of-thumb technique for studying the out-of-school activities of pupils. The matter of first importance is determination to make the study with certain clear-cut purposes in view. In this case the major objective is to determine as accurately as possible the kinds of out-of-school activities engaged in, and the time devoted to these, by each pupil. In pursuance of this objective, it is well to bear in mind that out-of-school activities of pupils vary considerably from school to school. For example, social-recreational opportunities are often limited by what people in certain communities believe about such things. Geographical location also makes a difference in what young people do for social-recreational purposes. This may be illustrated by pointing to the fact that at the same time youth gather along the coast in the lower Río Grande Valley of Texas for wiener roasts, their counterparts in Wisconsin may be enjoying ice-skating or skiing parties. Similar contrasts could be drawn to illustrate differences among communities in all other respects relating to youth's out-of-school activities.

Since all the activities of pupils, in and out of school, should be studied in order to help them solve their time problems, it is proposed that guidance workers begin by searching pupil's permanent-record folders. This practice should provide at least three important items of information about each student: (1) his class or subject load; (2) the school-sponsored, extraclass activities he participates in; and (3) his capacities, aptitudes, and accomplishments as revealed by tests and by grades earned. In addition, it is common to find that pupils' permanent-record folders also include information

concerning hobbies, work activities, and home and family life, and comments by teachers and other items which bear directly upon the pupils' outside activities and which indirectly furnish leads to others.

Pupils are ready sources of information about their activities outside the school if they understand why the information is sought and foresee assistance with their problems. It is very important to work *with* pupils when a project of the type described here is to be carried through. They are the chief beneficiaries of whatever good may come of the effort. And most certainly there can be little or no success without their assistance. Patience and wise planning are essential, however, if pupils' cooperation is to be secured.

Having studied the school records of students, together with responses to the inventory labeled "Time Does March On," guidance workers will have enough information about the time problems of youth to do two things: first, to begin discussions with pupils about their problems in the use of time, and second, to begin a listing of the out-of-school activities that require pupil time, with the intent ultimately to construct a questionnaire. It is suggested, however, that use of the questionnaire to determine pupils' activities outside school hours be postponed until they have been given an opportunity to list those they engage in by the free-response method. There are two major reasons for this suggestion. First, the free-response method is one of the best means of securing a complete inventory of the things students do when not in school. Second, the guided-response check list, or questionnaire, tends to cause pupils not to think beyond its contents. They will respond only to the questions asked therein.

Other methods of identifying the out-of-school activities of pupils will occur to guidance personnel who undertake such a study. Some of these will likely include conferences with individual pupils; talks with parents, scout leaders, and other adults in the community; and visits to places of employment and to places frequented by young people. The statement was made earlier that a variety of techniques should be used in studying the ways pupils use time. Several have been mentioned, and others will be needed if a thorough job is to be done. Trust to do the job well can be placed in those who take advantage of every method that shows promise.

SOMETHING TO THINK ABOUT, SOMETHING TO DO

It has been shown that budgeting time, how to study, how best to spend leisure time, and the time-consuming nature of school subjects are the time problems of most concern to youth. Although how best to spend leisure time is closely related to the others, for guidance purposes the first, second, and fourth types are so intimately related as to defy separation. It is believed that treating each type of problem separately is the best means of revealing how close indeed are the relationships between them. It is also believed that the suggestions made will appear more practical by this arrangement and will provide guidance personnel better bases for answering the question "Where shall we begin?" Because of the close relationship between problems characterized as budgeting time, how to study, and the time-consuming nature of school subjects, however, they will be discussed in that order, and how best to spend leisure time will be treated last.

Planning the Use of Time. Pupils' concerns about budgeting time offer practical advantages, particularly to homeroom teachers and other teachers. In the first place, many youth do not have to be "sold" the idea of budgeting time. They know that the day is only so long, that they have a variety of things they feel impelled to do, and that there are still other things they would like to do, time permitting. Even so, it is often necessary to help young people crystallize their thoughts concerning the wisdom of budgeting their time, and still more often to help them master the techniques of budgeting.

Second, students look to the school faculty for assistance and for leadership. They realize that teachers in particular are obligated to assign them tasks and hold them responsible. They know, moreover, that teachers are important to their lives during the school year, and pupils usually accord them a great deal of respect.

Third, secondary-school youth are usually cooperative. They will throw themselves wholeheartedly into any worth-while enterprise when they are encouraged to do so.

The matter of budgeting, then, may well be the beginning consideration of a whole series of guidance activities having to do with youth's problems in the use of time. When these problems are

brought to the attention of students, it is believed that the majority will feel they need assistance. The amount of assistance needed, however, will vary with individual pupils. Budgeting time, like budgeting money, is an individual problem, and the less adept pupil can think of dozens of reasons in defense of his own attitude toward the practice.

It is scarcely possible for two pupils to have identical round-the-clock schedules. They may be alike in some respects, but they always differ, because two different people are involved. But there are other reasons. For example, two pupils may have identical in-school schedules, as shown by school records, but the same two persons may have quite different out-of-school schedules. One may live fifteen minutes from school, while the other may have to allow forty-five minutes to be sure he arrives on time. One may work an hour each day after school and on Saturday morning, while the other has no outside work. Again, one of the pupils may be able to do his homework more rapidly than the other. Each therefore has individual problems in the budgeting of time, and it is therefore impossible to say that students who take, say, four solid courses and physical education, who belong to one club, and who participate in one extracurricular activity should have like time budgets. What is sauce for the goose is not sauce for the gander when the use of time is a consideration.

However individual the budgeting of time may be, students need to think through some of the more important factors involved in planning and effecting the distribution of their time. Not to be overlooked also is the individual stimulus produced when pupils discuss such things as groups. In the first place, they learn a great deal from one another. Secondly, each pupil realizes then that he is in company with others among his peers who also have difficulty in making their time-ends meet. This knowledge prevents the pupil from feeling that he alone has such problems and spares him the fear that he may be uncomfortably unique.

Teacher-counselors may find the following suggestions useful in helping pupils come to grips with the problem of budgeting time.

1. Permit pupils to discuss such well-timed questions as: What is a budget? What do people budget? Do people usually try to budget that over which they have no control? Why practice budgeting at all?

2. Suggest that students discuss some of the factors involved in budgeting time. This will help them to see some of the implications for the individual who attempts to plan his activities more systematically.

3. Ask pupils to think about budgeting their own time and write down the advantages and disadvantages as they see them. These may then be discussed more fully, thereby bringing to light relative values needed for straight thinking about budgeting time.

4. Pupils may be encouraged to keep a record for a week of the things they do each day and the time they devote to each activity. Insist that everything be included and *assure them that they do not have to reveal their listings to anyone*. Pupils will then have better bases for thinking about budgeting time in particular reference to these questions: What portion of the day should be included in the budget? Should Saturdays and Sundays also be included?

5. When it is appropriate to do so; suggest to students that they try living on a time budget for a week. Explain to them that this is an experiment with a tentative plan that may be used to make a budget better suited to the demands made upon their time.

6. Some students will want to know how to make a time budget. The type shown on page 129 is simple and adequate.

Pupils may arrange their timetables to begin at any hour in the morning and to close at any hour at night. Show them how to begin, and pupils will do the rest. Suggest that each pupil begin by listing first his class schedule and other activities carried on at the same times daily. Suggest that it is also wise to provide some "free" time. Students should understand, however, that the time budget must be heeded for the most part just as one would heed a financial budget. That is to say, never spend more free time than the budget provides. Properly made and given reasonable regard, the budget will provide ample time for play and recreation.

7. After the pupils have lived on a time budget for a week, permit them to hold further discussion of the problem. They will no doubt need some helpful suggestions on revisions of their budgets and adaptations that are new to them. Counselors may find at this point that the best preparation for constructive guidance is to try the same experiment themselves.

The matter of budgeting time should not be dismissed entirely when pupils seem to be fairly well adjusted to living and working

TIME BUDGET

Days	Morning hours					Afternoon hours						Evening hours			
	7-8	8-9	9-10	10-11	11-12	12-1	1-2	2-3	3-4	4-5	5-6	6-7	7-8	8-9	9-10
Monday															
Tuesday															
Wednesday															
Thursday															
Friday															
Saturday															
Sunday															

according to their plans. Students tend to acquire new interests, to drop certain activities, and to add still others. Their budgets should accordingly be adjusted to the new programs of life.

Techniques of Study. Consideration of pupils' interest in budgeting time will lead naturally to their problems in how to study, for it has been shown that concern about the element of *time* prompted students to list these types of problems in the first place. Accordingly, the purpose here is to provide some practical suggestions for helping pupils develop more effective study habits and skills.

A great deal of attention has been given by educators to factors related to study and to ways of developing efficient methods of study. Many facets of this problem have been studied and reported in the past twenty-five or thirty years. It follows that there is now a considerable body of literature bearing upon this subject, ranging from books exploring the deeper psychological meanings and implications of study as an intellectual activity to how-to-study manuals written primarily for students.² There is sufficient agreement among the several authors to warrant the following observations.

First, study is conditioned by a number of factors. Traxler³ names twelve:

1. Physical condition—both general health and temporary fluctuations.
2. Intelligence or scholastic aptitude or ability to learn.
3. Ability to do work-type reading.
4. Achievement in specified subjects, especially mastery of techniques of thinking peculiar to each field.
5. Knowledge of the library facilities and skill in using them.
6. General home background and conditions for study at home.
7. Study conditions in the school.
8. Schedule of work in school and out of school.
9. Understanding of what is expected in each daily assignment.
10. Understanding of elementary psychological principles of study, such as best methods of memorizing.
11. School friends and other associates.
12. Feeling of security, freedom from worry, emotional adjustment.

² The list of references at the end of this chapter includes several of the better-known works in this field. It is selective rather than exhaustive.

³ Arthur E. Traxler, *The Improvement of Study Habits and Skills*, Educational Records Bulletin 41, pp. 4-5, October, 1944

Second, despite the fact that there is probably a small proportion of pupils in every school who need the services of a competent mental therapist, most students can be taught skills and can develop habits that will improve their abilities to study effectively.

Third, it is unwise to assume that a fixed pattern of study techniques is suitable for all pupils, however valid the techniques may be. Pupils differ in their abilities to use study methods just as they differ in other respects. Furthermore, pupils with comparable abilities may use effectively the same or very similar techniques in different ways to accomplish essentially the same purpose. For example, Joe and Jim may be skilled in note taking, but when their notes are examined by Bob, who is equally skilled, they may make little or no sense to him. But the same basic skill is used effectively by all three.

Fourth, the school seeking to help pupils develop effective study habits and skills should accept the task with the understanding that it must be continuous, because the techniques involved cannot be mastered by even the most apt in a brief period of time. Again, each year a new group of students enter the school and they need to learn how to study effectively no less than their older schoolmates.

Fifth, helping pupils to develop efficient study habits and skills is basically a teaching job. It requires of each teacher both adaptation to the needs and abilities of pupils and acceptance of full responsibility of teaching pupils the techniques necessary for effective study in the course or courses he offers. Obviously there are differences in the methods demanded in, say, the study of history and algebra, or Latin and foods—sufficient differences in that the methods are peculiar to the specific subjects. Each subject teacher, then, should accept the fact that he is responsible not only for *what* pupils are to study but also for *how* they can best study it. Moreover, it may reasonably be expected that each teacher knows more about how to study the subject he teaches than those who have less knowledge of his subject field. This means simply that the method of study must be the concern of every teacher if pupils are to develop the habits and master the techniques needed to accomplish satisfactorily the school work required of them.

Before presenting suggestions for helping students improve their study habits and skills, it is best to consider briefly what pupils refer to as the time-consuming nature of school subjects.

School Subjects, Study, and Time. Reference to pupils' statements of problems of this type points up the old question of homework. It should be observed that not one pupil among the 403 who stressed the time-consuming nature of school subjects as a cause of worry indicated that homework should be abandoned. Pupils' statements of this type of problem do, however, provide substantial ground for four rather pertinent observations. First, there is a tendency for teachers to permit work to pile up unnecessarily from time to time during the course of a semester or a school year. Upon investigation it was found that this piling up of work usually occurs during the latter days of reporting periods and just prior to the end of each semester. It appears also that teachers quite often and unexpectedly add special things to be done by students at still other times, thereby complicating matters for pupils.

Second, pupils complain of lengthy assignments in their school subjects. There are two major implications to be drawn from this particular cause of worry: (1) In view of the tendency upon the parts of authors of school textbooks to "cover" their respective fields, with the inevitable result that excessive length is a major characteristic of most books (to say nothing of the wide variety of "collateral" or supplementary materials currently being marketed), teachers are increasingly faced with the necessity of being intelligently selective; and (2) rather than being compelled to race through subject matter in the interest of complete coverage, teachers should be more concerned about the development of understanding on the parts of pupils before adding still other assignments.

Third, lengthy reading assignments are not uncommon among secondary-school teachers. This is particularly true in the fields of English and social studies. It is equally true that differentiation in reading assignments is not the most common practice. Rather, the tendency is largely that of uniformity in requirements, with small regard for the principle of individual differences among pupils.

Fourth, many pupils do not understand assignments. This is an inevitable consequence of conditions reflected by the three observations just made and brings into focus once again the old issue of faulty planning by teachers.

Pupils' concerns about time as it relates to problems of study indicate certain steps all teachers may take. The following are suggested:

1. Each teacher should be certain that he and his pupils are working toward the same major objectives. To know where one is going usually makes finding one's way a much easier task. So it is with study and learning. If a pupil understands the objectives of instruction and the relationships between assignments and goals to be accomplished, he is generally motivated to think in terms of "this is how I shall achieve my purposes," instead of thinking in terms of "I wonder why the teacher wants me to do this?" or "I wonder how the teacher wants me to do that?"

2. Suggest to pupils that study is work. This can be done without leaving the impression that "this course is difficult and I shall have occasion to prove it before the semester's end." Students should be led to see that one may develop more effective study techniques just as one may develop effective techniques for many other kinds of work.

It is to be hoped that teachers will avoid the mistake of attempting to guide young people in the development of skillful study habits by asking them first to point out their own deficiencies. Pupils usually will improve their study habits and skills as better devices are made known to them and as they use these. It is enough to know that students want to be able to study more effectively and that there are some fundamentally sound ways by which they may improve their study techniques.

3. Consider with pupils the advantages in studying certain subjects at given times and in given places. Such a discussion will likely reveal that some assignments can be done as well or better at home than at school, and vice versa, depending on the student. In any event, the practice of placing and timing subjects for study has the advantage of stimulating associations that produce the feeling that "this is going to be done here and now."

4. Discuss with pupils the physical conditions under which study is likely to yield the greatest returns. Secure their reactions to such statements as these:

a. One should be comfortable but not too comfortable when studying.

b. It is best to study in a room where light is sufficient and fairly uniform, rather than to use a desk lamp that lights the desk but leaves the remainder of the room in semidarkness.

c. Study should be done where there are few distractions. Suggest that pupils list distractions that disturb them. Such a list may then be considered, item by item, with the view of lessening or obviating distractions.

d. Study should be begun when the necessary implements, such as paper, pencils, pens, ink, rulers, books, and the like, are at hand.

5. Students should understand that feeling well physically contributes to effective study. The following questions might be discussed:

a. What has physical condition to do with effective study?

b. Should a very tired or physically fatigued person attempt serious study?

It should be remembered that those who constantly exhort pupils to keep physically fit are likely to lose their influence. The choice rests with individual students, and most of them are intelligent enough to understand the rules of health. It is preferable that students be encouraged to weigh values and arrive at their own conclusions about physical well-being as it relates to study.

6. Discuss with pupils the wisdom of estimating the length of time one can study without a break in order to achieve desirable results. The time will vary with individuals. The majority will likely find, however, that relatively short, concentrated efforts, with intervening times devoted to some other type of activity, usually yield better results.

7. A common element related to study is that of reading. Guidance workers should understand that the authors do not here propose suggestions for an all-out attack upon the reading problem in secondary schools. Rather, the following suggestions are made for the purpose of helping pupils see what they can do to facilitate study with the equipment they have at hand. For example:

a. Pupils may discuss reading matter of different types. Some materials may be read by pupils at the rate of several hundred words per minute. This type of reading should be contrasted with technical materials, nearly every word of which challenges attention for understanding. Contrasting a light novel with statements of scientific principles makes an effective illustration.

b. Students may discuss the significance of book indexes and tables of contents as guides to the reader.

c. Titles, chapter headings, and topic headings are guides to reading. Suggest to pupils that they study the uses to be made of each.

d. Important clues for the reader appear in such forms as:

- (1) The central idea in a paragraph or a topic
- (2) Key words and key phrases
- (3) Italicized words
- (4) A succession of reasons which the author enumerates as first, second, etc.

Those who are guiding the discussions should bear in mind that key words are frequently unfamiliar to students in secondary schools. It follows, therefore, that pupils should learn the meanings of new words. The first clue for discovering the meaning of a new word is its use in the sentence or paragraph where it is found. If this clue fails, students should be encouraged to learn the meanings either by asking someone or by consulting a dictionary. It is also suggested that pupils be encouraged to use new words immediately and in as many ways as possible.

8. Students in secondary schools often need to learn how to make notes on material they read. It should be explained to them that note taking does not mean copying what the author has written. They should also understand that the purpose of note taking is to provide the student with a brief summary statement, reference to which will enable him to recall a body of information which bears upon a given topic, as well as to keep before him the source of information.

9. Students should be encouraged to discuss with others what they have read in books, newspapers, and magazines. Thus they make their learning function. Other pupils are usually interested and will enter into such discussions with enthusiasm. Such an activity encourages pupils to think through with others what they have learned. This is an excellent device for getting additional information as well as making articulate one's own thoughts.

10. Pupils should discover that memorization has its rightful place in the processes of learning. They should accordingly have guidance in the best methods of memorization. Different materials require different techniques for memorizing. For example, it is considered well to commit to memory an entire poem unless the poem is very long. If the poem is long, it should be broken into relatively large parts. In contrast, a series of steps in a mathematical principle may well be

memorized one at a time, the student making certain that he knows the meaning of each step as he goes forward.

Again, if the memory work is long, pupils should be led to discover the advantage of working in short intervals of, say, ten, fifteen, or twenty minutes. This is usually better procedure than trying to memorize the entire work at one sitting.

Students in secondary schools usually know, even if they are not able to express themselves, that memorizing does not necessarily mean learning. This fact should be brought to students' attention for discussion. It is likely that they will then come to realize that in instances where they are required to learn as well as to memorize, it is better to put what they have memorized into their own words.

11. Pupils frequently need guidance in studying for tests. It seems that the best approach to this particular phase of guidance in how to study resides basically in good teacher-pupil planning and in teachers' ability to help pupils achieve the goals agreed upon. Pupils will then learn that testing is a teaching-learning device as well as a means of estimating pupil progress.

In any case, teachers should let their pupils know well in advance what type of test is to be given and when it is to be given. The type of test in prospect will suggest study techniques for those who are preparing to take it. Methods of study vary with the types of tests to be given. An example or two will illustrate this point. The essay-type test calls for study which involves the assimilation of a body of information and the unification of appropriate ideas, the sum of which is the expression of a larger thought. By contrast, true-false, completion, matching, best-answer, and other types of so-called "objective" tests call for the use of different study techniques. Pupils must remember words and phrases, dates, and other such items in order to do well on such tests.

Pupils should understand the test directions, if any, before attempting to answer the questions. Moreover, pupils should know, at least in a general way, the individual teachers' methods of scoring tests. For example, they should know whether certain parts of a test are weighted. Again, they should know whether an objective-test item answered incorrectly counts as one question missed or whether the raw score will be counted on the basis of right minus wrong. Why confuse pupils? They are the people who have the most at stake.

If the test involves paper writing, pupils should have the advantage of instruction in how to write a good paper. It only makes trouble for both teacher and pupils to leave pupils to their own devices. Most students want to do well, and they should be helped to success by being shown how to avoid mistakes. It is safe to say, as one student put it, that students learn very little more by writing a dozen poor papers than by writing one poor paper. Conversely, one short, well-written paper, prepared with the help of a good teacher, is worth more to a pupil than several papers done without such aid.

The teacher who calls upon a student to write a paper should be willing to fulfill three obligations to him: First, he should help the pupil select a meaningful topic; second, he should make available appropriate references; and third, he should help the pupil use good writing procedures, even if this means advancing the date of completion of the paper.

12. It is suggested that each person concerned with the education of pupils strive to take the mystery out of the subject he teaches. This is not weak pedagogy. A teacher should let his pupils know that he is in the school to help them to success rather than to condition them to failure.

13. It is believed that all personnel concerned with guidance stimulate frequent discussions on the subject of study. Pupils should be allowed to reveal techniques which seem to them to work well. They should be given new information from time to time that has to do with the improvement of study procedures. Such practices will help young people recognize their strong points, thus developing still other ways by which they may improve their own study habits.

Finally, there is reason to believe that most pupils can be helped to improve their study habits and skills. But it is equally reasonable to believe that no amount of effort to improve study techniques can compensate for failure to make adjustments in curriculum and instruction consonant with the requirements of youth. For best results, the two should go hand in hand.

The Problem of Leisure Time. One of the most striking statements of the significance of leisure time is made by Neumeyer and Neumeyer: ‘

‘Martin H. Neumeyer and Esther S. Neumeyer, *Leisure and Recreation*, p. 13, A. S. Barnes and Company, New York, 1949.

The civilizations of the world have been made and unmade by the way in which people have used their free time. The direction of a civilization is conditioned by what people do when they work as well as by what they do when they do not work. People must work to make a living, and many advances have been made in science and technology as the outgrowth of labor. While work is necessary for subsistence, and no country has ever been able to exist without it, the culture of a group is built up mainly during spare time. Thus, the direction of a civilization is shaped largely by the extent and uses of leisure, rather than by what people do when they work. The tone of any society is conditioned by the quantity and quality of leisure, whether it be restricted to a few or indulged in by many. If people engage in creative and constructive activities during their leisure, civilization is advanced; if they indulge in useless and destructive activities, the social order deteriorates and progress is retarded.

Guiding pupils into worth-while leisure pursuits is a purpose of secondary education. This purpose is even more significant now than when it was first conceived. Man's inventive genius has contributed much to extend the life span, to reduce physical toil, and to encourage wholesome living through creative leisure in thousands of ways. Much of this genius, however, has worked to produce innumerable devices which are fashioned to attract both young and old during leisure hours and which add practically nothing to the intellectual, moral, and cultural qualities of the race. A stroll through nearly any American community is sufficient to show how inventions that are good for humanity are struggling in competition with innovations that encourage waste of both human and material resources. And there is no indication that this form of competition will be less keen in the future. It may be assumed, therefore, that youth of the future may need guidance in the profitable use of leisure even more than those of today. And it has been shown that pupils now in secondary schools not only need such guidance but are ready to receive it.

Resourceful guidance personnel will find many opportunities to help pupils solve their leisure-time problems. The approaches should be simple and direct. It is probable that the group approach is to be preferred at the outset. Every reasonable effort should be made to guarantee pupil planning. Consider the following suggestions:

1. What does leisure time mean? Allow pupils to think through and formulate definitions.

2. Suggest that students estimate the amount of leisure they have each week. After these estimates have been made, suggest that each study his own day-by-day activities for a more accurate estimation of free time at his disposal.

3. Is leisure time important to the individual? Why or why not? Such questions will stimulate pupils to think in terms of objectives to guide them in leisure pursuits.

4. What evidence can be shown that local, private, state, and Federal money is spent in order that people may enjoy more profitable leisure? What seems to be the reason for these expenditures? Find out how much money is spent for this purpose each year in your own community. For what is it spent?

5. Call to the attention of pupils the efforts of such organizations as the Boy Scouts and the Girl Scouts and the churches, foundations, and community recreation centers. Lead them to discuss these institutions with respect to the opportunities they present for more wholesome leisure hours.

6. Suggest to students that they question their own leisure-time needs. Discuss these according as they reflect (a) individual needs and (b) group needs.

7. Debate the proposition: Resolved that group activities are more profitable to individuals than activities engaged in alone. This discussion should help pupils understand that leisure time may be used profitably when the individual pursues his own interests both alone and as a member of a group.

8. Suggest to pupils that they discuss the merits of organized recreation as compared with free, or unorganized, recreation. This question lends itself to a lively panel discussion.

9. In what ways do libraries meet leisure-time needs? Suggest that a committee of pupils call upon the school librarian for information about books and magazines that are suitable for leisure reading. Another committee may call upon the librarian at a public library for the same purpose. It would be well to have these committees' reports followed by an excursion to libraries and by visits to the group by librarians. Services may thus be clarified and extended.

10. What is the role of the radio as an outlet for leisure interest? What about television? Suggest that pupils form an audience group with the view of studying various types of radio and television programs. Try to lead each student to answer this question: Do I listen

to the radio or turn to television as an escape from boredom, or do I use these instruments because the programs to which I turn are genuinely worth while? It may also be helpful to encourage young people to think in terms of: What uses of radio and television can I make to extend my interest in people, in institutions, and in things I need more information about?

11. In what ways may hobbies help to satisfy leisure-time needs? What are some interesting and inexpensive hobbies that are known to challenge the interest of many young people in secondary schools? It is likely that a number of pupils will reveal their own hobbies and indicate the satisfaction derived therefrom.

12. Consider with students the merits of group activities as outlets for leisure interest.

13. Suggest that students compile a list of folk games that appeal to groups. Opportunities should be provided for those interested to learn to participate in a variety of these so that they may be used in out-of-school life.

14. Discuss the role of music as a leisure activity for the pupil, both as a player and as a listener.

15. Explore the possibilities for leisure offered by such activities as drawing, painting, cartooning, creative writing, boating, hiking, gardening, etc.

Guidance workers will find that discussions of such questions as those just listed will give rise to many opportunities for gaining pertinent information about leisure and its activities and personal and social effects. Students in secondary school should be helped to understand the deeper meanings and the implications of the wise use of leisure time. It appears that leisure is thought of in the secondary schools as being overwhelmingly a time for physical activity. To be sure, youth need physical activity, but it is apparent from the problems they state that there are also needs for other types of leisure activities.

It is not assumed here that group guidance in the use of leisure time will satisfy every pupil's need. The group approach, however, seems to be the most promising. Too, intelligent group guidance usually opens the way for effective individual guidance.

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CHAPTER 5 *Youth Look to the Future*

A normal characteristic of children is their desire to grow up. By the time they reach secondary school they fully realize that they *are* growing up, and most of them are eager to mature into useful, productive adult citizens. Youth look forward to an adulthood which will permit them to enjoy home and family life; they like to think they will have the satisfaction of performing significant social and civic tasks; and they want to carry their loads as mature people in all other phases of worth-while living. But pupils in secondary school realize that business, professional, and work opportunities are fundamental to any reasonable success as adults; and they want to be successful.

PUPILS NAME THEIR DIFFICULTIES

Pupils in secondary school are aware of some of the major difficulties confronting them as young people soon to be about the adventurous pursuits beyond their present more or less home-school-bound environment. In their attempts to face the future more comfortably, youth try to spell out the problems about which they worry. Figure 6 shows the types of problems 2,784 students listed, evincing concern about their future.

Figure 6 shows that choice of vocation and the possibility of placement and success in that vocation ranks first among pupils' problems for the future. This type of problem was listed by 636 boys and 593 girls. The problem of continuing formal education was mentioned by 413 boys and 499 girls. Worry about academic success was expressed by 330 boys and 313 girls.

Attention is once again called to the ages of pupils who presented these problems. It may be of particular interest to many school people, for example, to learn that approximately 75 per cent of the 1,229 boys and girls who expressed concern about their vocational future were over fifteen years of age. Add to this group the fifteen-year-olds, and the percentage of the total becomes 91. In like man-

VOCATIONAL CHOICE, PLACEMENT, AND SUCCESS

BOYS - 636	GIRLS - 593
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CONTINUING FORMAL EDUCATION

B - 413	G - 499
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SUCCEEDING ACADEMICALLY

B - 330	G - 313
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FIG. 6. Distribution of 2,784 references to three types of problems about the future which worry youth most, by sex (left); and percentage ratios of responses of girls to boys, by age (right).

ner, concerns about continuing formal education and about academic success are expressed most frequently by juniors and seniors in high school. Implicit in the responses of young people, therefore, is the suggestion that guidance in keeping with problems presently to be described be intensified at the upper levels of secondary education.

Vocational Choice, Placement, and Success. As indicated above, pupils fifteen years old and older express considerable concern about their future vocational prospects. The factor of choice, the opportunities for placement, and the likelihood of success give rise to questions upon which they need help in thinking through. Such worries are best expressed by youth themselves. They write as follows:

Figuring out what course to follow in later life is one of my biggest problems. [Boy, 16]

I can't decide what kind of employment to seek when I graduate.
[Boy, 17]

I can't decide whether to go in business with my father or to go on to something more interesting. [Boy, 17]

Will music or chemistry be a better vocation? [Boy, 16]

I can't decide what my life work should be and feel reasonably sure of my choice. [Girl, 16]

I have trouble because I want to be a mechanic and my mother wants me to be a lawyer. [Boy, 15]

Should I study to be what my folks want me to be, or should I prepare for the kind of work I want to do? [Girl, 17]

I don't know what I want to do after finishing high school, and this makes me very uneasy about my future. [Girl, 17]

How can I tell what kind of work I am best suited for in later life? [Boy, 15]

I am puzzled about what I should like to become when I am a man. [Boy, 16]

I would like to know how to get good and reliable information about studies I should take for my career. [Girl, 14]

One of my problems is whether I'll be able to get a decent job after finishing high school. [Girl, 16]

I'd like to know which has the best future, tool designing or aviation. [Boy, 17]

I think I can do some things well, but I don't know how to find a place to work. [Girl, 17]

I worry because I don't know how to get placed in a job. [Boy, 17]

I often worry about whether or not I will succeed in my chosen vocation. [Boy, 16]

How can one find out whether she is likely to succeed in a chosen vocation? [Girl, 16]

Continuing Formal Education. Youth in secondary education look to the future with uncertainty about continuing formal education. Some plan to go to college but indicate that they do not know how to select the proper school. Others express an interest in continuing formal education beyond high school but question their own abilities to do the work successfully. There is a third group of pupils who would like to continue formal education provided they are financially able to do so through scholarships and part-time employment. Finally, there are pupils who are not at all sure of the practicability of finishing high school. These problems are typically expressed in the statements below.

I plan to go to college, but I don't know much about selecting a school to attend. [Boy, 17]

I want to be a mechanical engineer, but I am worried because I haven't the bases for the choice of school. [Boy, 16]

I'd like to know the school to attend to prepare for teaching. How can I get that information? [Girl, 17]

What should I know about a college or university before I enroll? [Girl, 16]

I'd like to know how I can tell whether I might succeed if I go to college. I'd like to go, but I wonder if I can do the work required. [Girl, 16]

I'm not sure about my own ability to do college work. How can I find out? [Boy, 16]

Is it advisable for a boy who has difficulty with his high-school work to go to college? [Boy, 17]

My most ardent desire, after I'm graduated, is to be able to attend college, if I can earn a scholarship. Where do scholarships come from, and how do I go about getting one? [Girl, 16]

I'd like to enter college after graduation from high school, but I haven't enough money to pay all expenses. Is there a possibility I might work my way through? [Boy, 16]

I don't know if I should try to finish school. Is it worth it? [Boy, 14]

Would it be smart to quit school? I'd like to know. [Girl, 14]

I can't seem to make a go of it in high school. We are all treated as if we were going to college, and I'm not. It seems to me I am marking time and ought to get out and go to work. How about it? [Boy, 16]

What good will high school do me? Nobody answers that question, and I'm not getting anything here that will do me any good. I'd like it if I were. I may quit but don't really want to. [Boy, 15]

I question whether it's worth while for me to finish high school or get a job. [Girl, 16]

Is it absolutely a must that kids finish high school? I can't see that I'll be any better off if I finish, and I'm debating whether to quit and go to work. [Boy, 16]

I can learn a skill in no time if left alone. Why go on through high school! I need to work. [Boy, 16]

Succeeding Academicolly. A considerable number of boys and girls in secondary school look to the future with grade marks over both eyes. They tend to take a dim view of the future in terms of the one or more years they have yet before graduation, or comple-

tion, as the case may be. Here is what youth have to say on this subject.

I can't think of anything but keeping my grades so that I can graduate at the end of next year! I can't think about what I want to do till this is over. [Girl, 16]

My school work is not interesting. I'm sick of trying to make grades when I'm not interested. I have to do it, though, for I need passing marks when I quit school at sixteen. I'm worried for my future. [Boy, 15]

It looks like the school could help us plan our future. But nothing goes here except grades, grades, grades in subjects to train our minds. It will be a relief to have it over so I can think about what I want to do. [Boy, 17]

I have two more years in high school, counting this one. I am more discouraged all the time. I mean about wanting to study something that will help me make a living. I don't mind other things that are interesting. But mostly my subjects are not interesting, so my nose is to the grindstone about grades. I hope I can stick it out and graduate. [Boy, 16]

IT'S A VOCATIONAL MATTER

When youth look to the future in ways described in preceding paragraphs, the dominant concern is obviously vocational or occupational in character. They know that a life obligation for each person is to engage in work of one sort or another. Their pleas for assistance take different forms, but their needs for guidance are clear. One may feel the need of guidance in the choice of vocation, while another may be most concerned about information that will help him secure a place to work. Still other young people debate the question of continuing formal education, largely because they are uncertain about the "pay-off," vocationally speaking. There are those who for one reason or another fight on diligently against academic failure, but almost always with the feeling that the fight is mostly one of attrition against themselves. There is a comparatively small group of pupils who know fairly definitely that they want to prepare for professional careers, and their main question involves the choice of a college or university best suited to their purposes. But for each youth in his own peculiar circumstance, directly or indirectly, it is a vocational matter. Nearly every student wonders about his possibilities of success in the work world.

FUNDAMENTAL CONSIDERATIONS

It is proper to assume that a democratic society must be progressively and continuously strengthened by the system of schools it establishes and supports. Professional educators to a man should therefore be driven by a *strong and unique compulsion to see to it* that the schools meet this obligation. Nothing less in the nature of purpose will suffice. In the present chapter, no less than in all others in this book, the point of view just expressed is basic. But here we are primarily concerned with vocational guidance in the secondary school. Let us examine in context some fundamental considerations to which school people should give thought.

Bigness and Smallness and Pupil Needs. The complexity of present-day society has a tendency to submerge the individual. Mass production, it is argued, is a dominant characteristic of the American way. The individual must therefore fit into a well-ordered system of mass production which requires, for the most part, machine-like performance in harmony with large numbers of other people.

The schools have not gone unaffected. The compatible twins, bigness and mass instruction, now characterize the public secondary schools attended by most youth. And by no means the least consequence of these monuments to economic and administrative expediency is the tendency to lose sight of individual pupils as *individual personalities*. Pupils thus lost in the mass are usually mass-treated by the school, with the inevitable result that individual aims in life, aspirations, abilities, aptitudes, and attitudes are accorded only incidental value at best. Wittingly or otherwise, the school thereby attempts to fashion a degree of mass-mindedness and mass performance that runs counter to the best interests of both youth and society.

Conversely, the small high school tends to exceed its limited resources, both human and material, in an effort to offer a range of studies and activities comparable to those offered in the large school. But not infrequently in such cases both teachers and pupils feel that nothing is accomplished satisfactorily. Visits in such schools leave one with the impression that activities for their own sake are emphasized out of proportion to their worth. It is also evident that pupils, as individuals, are of relatively minor concern save as they

are regarded as essential human elements in the schools' declared programs.

Democracy by its very nature gathers strength by keeping the ways to progress open for each person; and each person is most likely to contribute his best in turn to society when he has had opportunity to develop fully his best talents, as a person and as a worker, and to put these talents to work. Each pupil, then, should be so educated that he understands and appreciates the social significance of the work he does.

The Needs of Youth and the Needs of Society Not Wholly Different. School people often appear quite confused when they try to think of individual pupil needs and their satisfaction through education and guidance and training on the one hand, and society's needs and their implications on the other. It frequently appears that the two sets of needs are different and unrelated. This results in forms of schooling and guidance which are thought best to "prepare" youth for effective performance in adult society. After all, it is argued again and again, people live most of their lives as adults.

Very well, people do live most of their lives as adults in a dominantly adult society. But the needs of youth and the needs of society are not unrelated. They are close kin, and failure to recognize this truth is bound to result in a program of secondary education that meets neither the needs of youth nor those of society. Young people who go to school day by day in the many communities in this country have first call upon their schools. The secondary school is a youth-serving agency. Pupil needs, therefore, take precedence; but study of pupil needs in any secondary school will picture the community in many ways. Indeed, studying pupils—really studying them, individual by individual—provides the best single means of understanding the school community. For example, youth reflect the moral, ethical, and social standards of community life; they reveal the hopes and aspirations of their community. The community tends to shape pupils' interests, and youth in turn contribute in many ways to various phases of community life.

The school should search for what youth can reveal. Only in this way may individual and group needs be determined. What is more, to identify pupil needs is to determine largely the needs of society as well. And when the needs of pupils are met by the school, the school will then have fulfilled its obligation to society. It will have

satisfied society's demands for school services, vocationally and otherwise.

Vocational Guidance Cannot Stand Alone. Elsewhere in this book stress has been placed upon the importance of integrating guidance with all other phases of school activity. Vocational guidance derives much of its substance from learning experiences which help pupils discover themselves in relation to both common and novel situations. Each pupil should be provided with wide opportunities, therefore, to get information about the work and workers of the world.

This suggestion does not depreciate the work of the vocational-guidance counselor. It is rather a suggestion for strengthening vocational guidance by linking it with an educational service that places the welfare of youth above everything else. In other words, education and guidance are inseparable when properly conceived. Otherwise the state of affairs is usually much like this: ¹

Where there is little or no guidance in an educational program, there cannot be a truly rational relationship between the student's individual needs and the educational treatment he receives. But the resultant chaos is quiet chaos. There appear no such concrete and dramatic phenomena as discolored eyes and broken bones. We have instead such invisible and common consequences as frustration, indifference, boredom, and resistance to everything that schooling stands for.

We may also say that where there is little or no education in a vocational-guidance program, there can be no rational relationship between the student's individual needs and the guidance treatment he receives. This is tantamount to saying that, in the best conception of both functions, the teacher guides and the guide teaches. Each is interested in pupil adjustment. Each has a special contribution to make, but the commonness of purpose between teacher and vocational counselor forges a bond of inseparability between education and guidance.

It is not too much to suggest that the secondary-school curriculum be so organized that pupil adjustment is the dominant concern of all professional personnel. Any attempt to reorganize the school curriculum, and therefore instructional and guidance practices, to facilitate pupil adjustment must be based upon full recognition that all

¹ Howard M. Bell, *Matching Youth and Jobs*, p. 21, American Council on Education, Washington, 1940.

problems and needs of youth should be taken together. It is not good practice, for example, to stress the personal-social development of young people and neglect their needs for occupational information and guidance. It is equally unwise to emphasize vocational guidance while leaving to chance pupil adjustment to other important life situations. Assuming equality in the realm of occupational skills, the worker who is well-adjusted personally and socially is usually preferred.

Instructional and guidance practices should therefore be based upon the needs of youth for these services. Teachers and other guidance workers then complement and supplement one another to the end that pupils receive the greatest possible benefits from the school. They realize that a desirable learning situation stresses good pupil-pupil and teacher-pupil relationships, and that goals of education require that pupils explore and deepen their interests and enlarge upon information about all aspects of life, including vocations. Good teaching demands that teachers know their pupils individually and that they provide them with opportunities to learn that are consistent with their individual and group needs. Knowing these needs, teachers will, among other things, capitalize on all opportunities to help pupils see the relationships between school subjects and the vocations. They will also strive on every hand to help pupils develop their creative powers to the maximum and make satisfactory personal adjustments they must make from time to time. Teachers, therefore, have a large contribution to make to the vocational lives of their pupils by adjusting their curricula and methods and by providing pertinent information needed by specialists in vocational guidance. Indeed, it is practically impossible for the vocational counselor to be effective unless there is cooperative planning of instructional and guidance services with classroom teachers.

Vocational guidance workers, on the other hand, should understand the practical truth of Bell's ² statement:

Guidance cannot cure unemployment among youth, nor can it make more palatable the bitter cup of enforced idleness. But it will at least help young people break through the fog of romanticism that so often envelops their thinking about their vocational assets and limitations. It affords the best known means of reducing the frustration that results from

² *Ibid.*, p. 37.

the belated discovery that the door of opportunity is too narrow to permit their entrance upon the occupations of their choice. On the positive side, it provides the best possible assurance that capacities for leadership will be uncovered and directed into occupational channels where they can be of greatest service both to the individual and to his community. And finally, except through guidance, it is difficult to visualize how students can derive maximum profit from a diversified school program.

The implications of Bell's comments are obvious. Two further observations should be made, however, because of certain practices which are common to many secondary schools. First, classroom teachers more often than not fail to help pupils see the vocational implications of the subjects they teach. If for no other reason than to vitalize their own teaching, teachers should take their subjects out of the realm of the abstract as much as possible by helping youth see the relationships between what is being taught and what people do. Second, many vocational counselors have a tendency to "go it alone." This may or may not be from choice. The object here is to stress the fact that vocational guidance cannot stand alone.

Choice of Vocation Is the Individual's. If ours were a society where the child had no choice but to follow in the vocation of his father, there would be little or no need for vocational guidance and concern for the individual would be minor indeed. The individual would not need to worry about his future. He would have no occupational future other than to accept his own hereditary caste and make the best of it. But democracy, because of its emphasis upon freedom for the individual, demands that each person be given the right of choice and the privilege of making many choices during the course of his lifetime.

Freedom of choice, of course, complicates matters both for those who have choices to make and for those who would furnish guidance in order that choices might be more intelligently made. In the realm of vocations, for example, the *Dictionary of Occupational Titles* and its supplement list some 40,000 occupations. And it is quite likely that no one knows how many different ways people in this country alone legitimately earn their living. Opportunities for choice, therefore, are legion. Indeed, this is precisely why it is so necessary that youth in secondary school be given a great deal of information about the work world, types of occupations, and needs for education and

training in various occupational fields, as well as the opportunity to study employment trends and the privilege of analyzing their own capacities and interests in relation to all these factors.⁴

But what of vocational guidance in this complex structure? Are we prepared to say that even the best current practices are sufficient? Probably not. After a long period of productive work in the field of guidance, Brewer⁴ declares:

. . . After more than twenty-five years of experimentation there still is comparatively little known as to the nature of vocational aptitudes, their relation to general intelligence, and their relation to actual fields of work. Comparatively speaking, we are still guessing as to the measurement of abilities, and those who use vocational aptitudes tests should remember that test results are tentative at best.

These conditions are directly related to dangers in the use of tests by psychologists and others who *charge fees* for their services. Such professionals, whether honest and mistaken, or dishonest, are almost forced by the nature of their business to write prescriptions for their clients. But the state of psychology and guidance makes such definite advice illegitimate. Hence, all guides should be in the service of educational or similar institutions.

Consistent with his belief that "democracy, consent, and guidance hang together," Brewer⁴ goes on to say that he anticipates

. . . ere long, perhaps when there is greater sensitiveness to the more subtle implications of true democracy in human relationships, the rise of a new profession of counseling. Workers in this field will assist the student to find his way in and through a world of numerous persons fond of telling him just what he should do, will protect him against both benevolent and sinister suggestion and dictation, will help him see all the best alternatives in a given situation calling for action, will assist him in examining his case-study data and analyzing and judging each alternative, and will refrain from thinking, much less suggesting, the best decision for the young person to make. The tempting but childish question, What do you think I should do? will be handed back to the questioner.

⁴ See *Education and Economic Well-being in American Democracy*, National Education Association, American Association of School Administrators, Educational Policies Commission, Washington, 1940.

⁴ John M. Brewer, *History of Vocational Guidance*, p. 216, Harper & Brothers, New York, 1942.

⁴ *Ibid.*, p. 298.

It Is a Good Idea to Begin at Home. Utilization of the community to make school experiences more meaningful is no less appropriate in the field of vocational education and guidance than in other phases of pupils' development. Beginning at home offers several advantages. In the first place, people earn their living in a variety of ways in every community, even in small communities. To be sure, people in large communities do more different kinds of work than those in small communities, but often one of the chief differences between small and large communities, occupationally speaking, is that the large community has more people working in the several occupations rather than more occupations in proportion to the population.

Second, youth in secondary school are to some degree already familiar with the occupational life of the community. Of course, pupils are not able to identify all the ways by which people earn their living, nor do they have an intimate understanding of the occupations about which they do know something. But, taken together, pupils in almost any secondary school probably know more about the work and the workers of that community than even the best informed teacher or counselor. It is a good idea, then, to begin with the vocational knowledge pupils already have, since (1) it presents the psychological advantage of relating in-school education and guidance to the work activities of the community; (2) it offers the guide an excellent means of orienting himself to the work life in the school community and enables him to organize information by which pupils may deepen their understanding of the nature and requirements of the several occupations and the significance of these in relation to one another and to community well-being; and (3) it reveals community values and something of pupils' attitudes toward various occupations, thereby providing bases for counseling techniques best suited to particular groups of young people.

Third, there can be found in most communities organizations of various types composed of people who, as a group, are fairly representative of occupational life. Organizations such as the P.T.A., service and civic clubs, labor groups, and church-sponsored clubs are typical. The school that attempts to help youth face the future by means of educational and occupational guidance will profit by establishing and maintaining close liaison with these groups. There are several advantages to such close working relations. The following are some of the more important.

1. Teachers are given access to funds of information that are fresh, firsthand, realistic, and vital.

2. Avenues are opened by which pupils may participate more fully and more freely in the work life of the community.

3. Teachers are given wider opportunities to participate individually in community affairs and to contribute their knowledge in a variety of ways to community betterment.

4. Points of fusion are provided for cooperative effort among the several organized community groups, both to accomplish their own objectives and to stimulate still others to become active in school and community development.

5. Vocational-guidance opportunities for pupils are expanded both by increasing the number of informational sources and by enlisting the aid of people who can often provide counsel when it is particularized in terms of their respective fields of work.

6. Youth's opportunities for vocational exploration and tryout are enhanced.

7. Teachers and counselors may secure pertinent information about individual pupils which might not otherwise be considered needful.

8. The school's follow-up and placement service is strengthened. And in instances where no such service is provided, the necessary support to begin such service is secured.

9. The prestige of the school is enhanced in the community because the school demonstrates that all professional personnel are working together in the interest of pupil welfare. Thus the school becomes an integral part of community life, contributing to its betterment in many ways.

The conclusion should not be drawn that students of vocational guidance advocate the more or less common practice of working only with and through those organizations whose members are business and professional leaders in the community. Important as their contributions are, the school's failure to work intimately with other legitimate groups represents failure to recognize the significance of many facets of work life. All available groups should be utilized for guidance purposes. This implies that maximum use be made of worker personnel below the leadership level, no matter how competent the leaders may be. Job-level personnel can usually explain what they do and what it takes in the nature of training to do

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their jobs well. Moreover, they understand the many facets of successful personnel relationships better, perhaps, than those in positions of leadership.

Placement a Needed Service. Vocational guidance aims toward occupational adjustment. This implies the need for a placement and follow-up service. It suggests, also, that schools now providing no such service are obligated to do so. There are, to be sure, many secondary schools now providing placement services of sorts. For example, teachers of commercial subjects frequently place students in offices to perform clerical-secretarial functions. Or vocational-shop teachers may place boys in jobs. A comparatively few schools operate well-thought-out placement and follow-up services. So far, so good. But the majority of secondary schools provide no such service.

Many school administrators contend that they cannot afford a placement and follow-up service. Perhaps this contention is valid in some cases. There are secondary schools with such small enrollments and with such meager financial support that they are unable to offer many services the modern world demands of secondary education. These are the schools that probably should be consolidated with others to organize one school of optimum size. But consolidation is another problem.

Most youth, however, attend more or less comprehensive secondary schools, many of them large schools. We must conclude, therefore, that administrators in these schools who state that they cannot afford placement and follow-up are convinced that this service is not worth while. They are simply arguing against guidance. These people should be persuaded that the schools over which they preside cannot afford to be without this service to youth for several reasons. First, the school's obligation to youth and to society is *not* fully met when the pupil graduates or drops out. If the graduate plans to pursue a course in higher education, the school should endeavor to guide him into the choice of an institution that is best suited to his purposes. Furthermore, his progress should be followed at least until he is reasonably well adjusted in the institution of his choice, the school standing ready to assist him at every step and turn along the way. The high-school graduate who does not go to college and the dropout are alike in one particular, namely, each usually has the immediate task of getting a job and of adjusting

occupationally. Furthermore, each has the perfectly legitimate right to look to the school for assistance in this twofold task.

Second, the school that gears its program of education and guidance to the needs of youth, evaluates the results of teaching-learning-guidance activities, and keeps an adequate record of progress of each pupil knows more about each individual as a person and his potentialities as a worker than any other agency. Having this information at hand, and being a source of supply of worker personnel, the school occupies a most favorable position in the placement field.

Third, the school that seeks to identify itself and its activities with the work life of the community will be familiar with job specifications. This will aid materially in the placement of the right people in jobs and thus inspire confidence in the school. It will also open the way for effective follow-up which, in turn, provides a fund of up-to-date information to be used as a basis for continuous refinement of instructional and guidance practices.

Fourth, the school that provides adequate placement and follow-up services admits the practical truth that for most youth occupational adjustments are made in the work fields in which they find employment. There is no other way, no matter how effective the in-school program of education and guidance may be. Prework education and guidance can help, but youth should not be cut off from vocational counsel at the time they accept jobs if the school expects satisfactory returns from its efforts during earlier adolescent years. This would deprive youth of the service when they probably need it most.

Let Principles Guide Practices. It is recognized that vocational guidance is an important phase of the over-all guidance service of the school. Although this aspect of guidance is intimately related to all others, it warrants, as has been seen, special consideration. And by reason of its special character, vocational guidance to be effective should be planned in accordance with a system of values. Such a system should at once reflect the individual pupil's needs as a potentially productive worker and society's needs for him as a useful citizen. But the emphasis is upon the *individual*, since a society is good primarily because of the quality of its individual constituents.

It is suggested, therefore, that each school agree upon a system of values that will in turn indicate vocational-guidance practices to be employed. And in stating these values the principles of vocational

guidance will also be stated. By way of illustration, let us consider the principles outlined by the National Vocational Guidance Association.⁷

1. Individual differences must be recognized, understood, and given individual attention.

2. The program should provide all pupils with an opportunity for self-inventory, self-direction, self-development, and self-realization.

3. Provision should be made to enable teachers and all staff members to develop a better understanding of pupil behavior, needs, and problems.

4. The complexity of modern occupational life makes it necessary that accurate, comprehensive, and continuous information about occupations and about schools for further training be given pupils.

5. The individual should receive assistance in inventorying his assets and limitations and the opportunities available, but freedom of choice is his inherent right and is as necessary for his development as equality of educational opportunity.

6. Continuous vocational and educational guidance should be offered the individual because of the changing economic status, changes occurring in occupations, and changes in the developing personality and interests of the individual.

7. Students should not decide upon a vocation too early or too hurriedly, but only after the study of occupations and try-out experiences. Provision should be made for continuous reconsideration of plans.

8. In our American democracy, the ideal for which we strive is to give every individual freedom of choice in developing his potentialities, in determining his vocation, and in deciding how he wishes to spend his life. But with freedom of choice there is responsibility both on the part of society to provide facilities so that the individual can have the facts to assist him in making wise decisions and on the part of the individual to make use of these facilities in developing his potentialities to the utmost. Comparison of ability with achievement should be made each year to assist each individual to work up to the level of his ability.

Working backward from a statement of principles to the values from which they were derived, we are able to identify those that are implicit in the above quotations. Superseding all others is the value given the individual pupil as the *raison d'être* of educational and vocational-guidance services. When the statements of principle

⁷ *The Principles and Practices of Educational and Vocational Guidance*, National Vocational Guidance Association, Washington.

are considered in order, it is clear that the N.V.G.A. aims toward emphasizing:

1. The value of recognizing fully the significance of individual differences.

2. The value of providing for each pupil the opportunity to understand himself and to attain maximum self-development.

3. The value of understanding pupil behavior, needs, and problems by *all* members of the professional staff of the school.

4. The value of understanding the complex nature of contemporary occupational life, of possessing up-to-date information about occupations, and of being able to provide young people information about opportunities and places for securing further training.

5. The value of helping each pupil to exercise his right of freedom of vocational choice wisely by assisting him in inventorying his assets and limitations as well as the opportunities available to him.

6. The value of understanding changes in the personality and interests of each pupil and changes in economic and occupational fields so that continuous vocational and educational guidance may be provided.

7. The value of postponing final choice of vocation until the individual has had opportunities for studies of occupations and for tryout experiences.

8. The values of (a) providing facilities by which each individual may secure facts upon which to base his choice, (b) helping each pupil to understand that it is his responsibility to use all available facilities and assisting him in the use of these, and (c) knowing the relative ability of each pupil and progressively assisting him to work up to the level of his ability.

School people sometimes ask: Why not adopt principles of educational and vocational guidance such as those pronounced by the N.V.G.A.? Why involve ourselves in the task of agreeing upon certain values in order to be able to write our own guiding principles?

In answer to the first question, the present authors see no objection to the adoption by any group of such fine principles of educational and vocational guidance as those set forth by the N.V.G.A., provided each person thoroughly understands the value or values underlying each statement of principle and the implications of the several principles for guidance practices to be carried on in the school. It should be remembered that more often than not state-

ments of principles appearing in professional literature are prepared by people who are experts in their respective fields, and that principles grow out of and get their substance from established values that sometimes require long study just to be identified.

Perhaps the second question may best be answered by saying that, first, the process of thinking through issues and problems related to, say, educational and vocational guidance is an essential part of a defensible conceptual design of a program of services; second, it is the best assurance that staff members themselves will benefit from professional-growth stages through which most of them must pass if they are to do their jobs well; third, it is the most promising means by which consensus upon goals to be attained may be secured; fourth, it is the best guarantee that educational and vocational-guidance services will be provided in terms of the needs of youth in a given school and well fashioned because the best qualities of each staff member will be capitalized; fifth, it is a helpful way to obviate working at cross purposes; and sixth, it is the best assurance that the proper relationship of vocational guidance to all other phases of guidance in the school will be achieved.

For Many Students the Future Is Now. Despite the fact that more and more young people engage in further study in advanced schools of one type or another after leaving high school, the greater proportion of them enter a vocation immediately when possible. As a matter of fact, a considerable number of pupils have already temporarily established themselves in a vocation before graduation. The future, then, for many students becomes the present before or upon leaving school.

Some youth in secondary school sense that there may be some relationship between academic success and vocational success. This is evident by the fact that young people express concern about school marks and the effects the marks they earn may have upon their vocational future. This is a problem of the present. For these pupils, planning for the future means planning for day-to-day success in their classes. For still others, planning for the future anticipates completion of studies for and establishment in a profession. These illustrations represent a wide range on the time scale, but the masses of secondary-school youth are now planning their future within this range. Even so, they are all more or less concerned about problems that are immediate in nature.

GETTING ACTION THE PROFESSIONAL WAY

Thus far in the present chapter we have seen the types of problems youth worry about most when they look to the future. We have also examined some fundamental considerations relative to these problems, which by their very nature present pupils' needs for vocational guidance. These needs, then, represent a demand for professional service which the secondary school is obligated to give.

There follow some suggestions for action in the interest of vocational guidance and education in the secondary school. Although these suggestions are fashioned primarily for those in schools where a program of guidance is in the initial stage, they will be found useful in schools with plans and services already in operation.

The Staff Inventories Its Beliefs. Elsewhere in this book stress is placed on the fact that guidance is a whole-school affair. It follows, therefore, that a program of vocational guidance depends for its success largely upon a favorable, active professional staff which works as a unit. The specialist in vocational guidance cannot do much alone.

It is consequently advisable that the professional staff of the school inventory its individual beliefs at the outset and continue to do so from time to time after the guidance program is initiated. Each school may, and possibly should, structure its own inventory for this purpose. The following inventory suggests both form and content and may be helpful to school leaders.

TO STAFF MEMBERS

What each of you believes about vocational guidance and education is important. Success in this as in any other phase of the school program depends very much upon what you believe about it and upon what you do as individuals and as a staff working together.

This inventory has the following purposes: (1) to provide each member of the staff the opportunity to check his own beliefs against a list of statements pertaining to vocational guidance; (2) to provide bases for re-assessing the school's efforts at vocational guidance; and (3) to aid in planning steps to be taken to improve the school's guidance services to pupils.

Please read carefully each of the statements in this inventory. Opposite each statement you believe, put a check mark in the column under "Yes."

Opposite each statement **you do not believe**, put a check mark in the column under "No." Opposite each statement you would like to think about further before you are ready to announce a definite belief, place a check mark in the column under "?."

What I Believe about Vocational Guidance

Yes No ?

1. Vocational guidance and vocational education are essential functions of secondary education.
2. Every pupil needs vocational and educational guidance.
3. Every pupil has the right to choose his occupation.
4. Every pupil should be given opportunities for tryout experiences before exercising his choice of vocation.
5. The school should provide each child with an opportunity to acquire accurate information about several occupational fields and about specific types of vocations.
6. Occupational adjustment bears considerable relationship to personal and social adjustment.
7. Vocational guidance should go hand-in-hand with all other phases of guidance.
8. A given pupil's vocational interests are likely to change several times during his course of progress through secondary school.
9. Each teacher is obligated to search the content of the subject(s) he teaches in order that he may help pupils see all possible relationships between their studies and their own occupational interests.
10. Each teacher should be willing to modify both content and procedures used in the courses he teaches, whenever practicable, so that pupils may see more clearly the vocational implications of the subjects they study.
11. Nearly every member of the professional staff of the school should have a contribution to make to vocational guidance.
12. By cooperative planning of the instructional program, with pupil adjustment in view, teachers can facilitate the vocational guidance of youth.
13. Each teacher should be familiar with the techniques employed in this school to determine the vocational interests, needs, aptitudes, and capacities of individual pupils.
14. Each teacher should make an effort to acquire sufficient information and techniques to enable him to do some vocational and educational counseling.
15. Teachers should understand the work of the vocational counselor and be able to work with him.

Yes No ?

16. Teachers should supplement the results of tests given for guidance purposes by contributing pertinent anecdotal notes from time to time.
17. Each teacher should familiarize himself with, and be able to interpret, the contents of his pupils' permanent record folders.
18. Each pupil should be evaluated in terms of all his accomplishments and potentialities, not in terms of his academic achievement alone.
19. Each pupil should be helped to understand his own abilities and limitations in relation to vocational opportunities and requirements.
20. Teachers should be conversant with the ways by which most people in the community earn their living.
21. Youth should be given vocational counsel by the school even after they graduate and go to work.
22. The school should provide adequate placement and follow-up services for students.

Name _____

The staff should enter into the matter of inventorying its beliefs about vocational guidance in a professional manner. Moreover, everyone connected with the faculty—administrators, teachers, supervisors, and counselors alike—should record his beliefs. It is suggested that each member of the staff make duplicate inventories so that one may be retained for his own files. It is also advisable to make a master inventory showing the distribution of responses of the entire group. Each person should then be provided with a copy of the master inventory. Information of this nature should prove valuable in two very important particulars: (1) by providing topics for faculty study and discussion, and (2) by furnishing clues for the functional assignment of duties.

A Look at the Curriculum Is in Order. The bulk of each pupil's school day is devoted to class attendance and to study of his regular school subjects. And, in theory if not always in practice, the curriculum and instructional activities are geared to the capacities, the needs, and the interests of pupils, including needs for vocational information and guidance.

Professionally speaking, this topic is shopworn. It has been written about and talked about and urged upon school personnel for many years, and there is little likelihood that educators will soon drop the

subject. They should not, in fact, for it is important. But for our purposes, we need only to call attention to the fact that if professional people really mean what they say, it is time they come to grips with the obvious at the job level and realize fully that pupils' needs will be at best only partly met so long as the secondary-school curriculum persists in its present form. The process of tagging on and squeezing in little bits of goodness called guidance, while the big thing called curriculum remains basically unchanged in content, purpose, and method, is practically futile. There is no point to a guidance program outlined on paper, protected only by a small budget and a few well-meaning, hard-working, devoted people who would like, of course, to win converts among their professional colleagues but who usually work overtime in the interest of pupil adjustment by attempting to compensate for the shortcomings of those who insist upon an approach to learning which often has no psychological validity. Such a condition represents a house divided, characterized often by an attitude of cordial intolerance, each faction steadfastly defending its position without the power to eliminate the other.

The professional personnel in every school should get together from time to time for critical, unselfish examination of curriculum and instructional activities. The guides for thought and for action in this connection are the individual and group needs of pupils. And the determination of pupil needs comes first, as has been indicated in other pages of this book. Otherwise, there can be no valid criteria for judging the efficacy of curriculum content, and instructional and guidance practices and outcomes.

This is not a formidable suggestion. It should cause no bridling among professional personnel in secondary education. There is nothing inherently difficult about the process of examining and modifying curriculum and instructional procedure except, perhaps, the difficulty of the individual in bringing himself to the point of willingness to accept the fact that *his services are bought for the benefit of pupils*. He will then realize that *his own work as leader and guide will be more effective in every particular*. He will see the need for thoughtful consideration of *everything* he does as an individual and as a member of an *equally thoughtful, cooperating group*. Finally, he will discover that *his work is less taxing because it becomes increasingly a dynamic learning experience for both himself*

and his pupils, with a correspondingly decreasing conscious or sub-conscious feeling that "so much of my work life represents a contest that is never satisfactorily concluded."

Community Resources and Vocational Guidance. The community's occupational life usually represents the best possible resources for advancing vocational guidance in the school. They need only to be identified, classified, and used. This means that the school should take the initiative in studying the occupational life of the community and systematize the findings so that they will be most useful in the hands of all professional personnel and in the hands of pupils as well. It is suggested that the school prepare a "Study Guide of Occupations in _____," the name of the community to be supplied. This guide should include at least the following:

1. The name, location, nature, and size of each business or enterprise of whatever type, with brief factual material explaining its place in community life.

2. The various occupations, including every job classification, necessary to the operation of each business enterprise, whether it be large or small, private or corporate, nonprofit or public. Information relative to each job classification, be it executive or common labor, should be included such as specific job requirements, the type of person and education and training most desired, the manner in which personnel are selected, salary and wage scales, promotion policies, opportunities for advancement, work-time requirements, welfare and retirement benefits and costs, seasonal or regular employment, labor policies in effect, etc.

3. The names of people in each type of occupation who may be called upon to meet with school personnel and pupils for informational and guidance purposes, together with notations showing the contributions each may make.

4. Lists of printed and duplicated materials distributed periodically by each type of business or organization.

5. Individual, independent workers.

6. Professions.

Representatives of business and of the professions are usually willing to supply information of the type called for above when school people explain to them the uses to be made of it. What is equally important, people in the community are almost always willing to share their knowledge with faculties and youth when given the

opportunity to do so. And they can make real contributions to education and to guidance by so doing.

In addition, the school should utilize the services of the various organizations in the community for vocational-guidance purposes. Typical of organizations and groups able to give assistance are civic organizations, labor groups, service clubs, church-affiliated organizations, the P.T.A., the Boy Scouts, the Girl Scouts, women's organizations, the Y.W.G.A., and the Y.M.C.A. But these, too, should be studied carefully to determine what they can contribute and which among them is best able to make valuable contributions at proper times.

Records Should Be Kept. In addition to the usual data kept in pupils' permanent record folders, such as those pertaining to census, health, academic progress, measures of general achievement, measures of specific and general abilities, and participation in school-sponsored activities of the extraclass type, other information and data should be accumulated for educational and vocational-guidance purposes. For example:

1. Periodic recordings of each pupil's aspirations and aims in life.
2. The results of successive measures of interest.
3. The results of aptitude tests.
4. Measures of social and of personality adjustment.
5. Measures of attitudes.
6. A complete record of work experiences, including observations of employers and anecdotal reports by counselors.
7. Periodic recordings of what pupils would *like* to be in the future and what they expect to be.
8. Information concerning parents and their aims for pupils.

These records should be carefully examined and interpretations made from time to time, always with the purpose of discovering more appropriate bases for education and guidance of individual pupils.

IDENTIFYING YOUTH'S PROBLEMS

The types of problems youth generally have when they look to the future are described in the first part of this chapter. Any school, therefore, can be reasonably certain that its own pupils worry about essentially the same problems. But despite the fact that these prob-

lems are rather common and predominantly vocational in type, each school should discover those about which its own pupils are most concerned. In so doing, there is greater assurance that the guidance service offered will be fashioned to the particular needs of pupils in a given locality. The object is to identify the problems of each pupil and provide for him the information and guidance with which he may satisfactorily meet them.

It is suggested, first, that pupils' problems be studied on a school-wide basis. They may be gleaned from problems students present by free response, after the manner previously described. Second, problems locally determined may be studied in relation to those described herein and an inventory structured that can be used to identify individual pupils' needs for educational and vocational guidance.

There follows an inventory we have titled, "We All Look to the Future." It is simple in structure and easy to use. It includes, however, adequate samplings of the types of problems about which youth worry most when they look to the future. The reader will observe that the problems included in this inventory correspond to those identified in the first pages of this chapter and that they are set apart by Roman numerals I, II, and III.

TO STUDENTS

We All Look to the Future

But sometimes we are not sure of what we see. Still, we try to look into the future so that we can plan for an occupation. Everyone wants to *do something*, but there are so many things one *might* do that it is often confusing.

Recently, several thousand students in secondary schools looked to the future and stated their problems. Perhaps you have some of the same worries. Read through the samples given below. When you find a problem that worries you also, place a check mark like this \checkmark in front of the problem number. This will show that you need some information and a little help so that you can think your problem through. Your counselors and teachers will help you if you will name your problem and ask them for assistance.

I

1. What I should do to earn a living when I grow up is a problem for me.
2. I must go to work when I finish high school, but I don't know what kind of work I should try to do.

3. I can't decide whether to go into business with my father or do something different.
4. I am worried because I want to be a _____ (say what you want to be), but my parents want me to be _____ (say what parents want you to be).
5. My problem is deciding which would be better as a vocation, _____ (you name it) or _____ (you name it).
6. I would like to find out what kind of work I am best fitted to do.
7. I would like to know how best to prepare to be a good _____ (name the occupation).
8. How can I be reasonably sure I have chosen the right vocation?
9. How can I learn my chances of success in the occupation I have chosen which is _____ (name occupation chosen).
10. I want to know how I can be placed in a job.

II

11. I intend to go to college, but I need information to help me choose the right one.
12. I want to study to be _____ (write in what you want to be), but I don't know how to go about choosing the college I should attend.
13. What should I know about a college or university before I enroll?
14. I need to know what my chances of success are if I go to college.
15. I'm not sure about my ability to do college work, and I'd like to find out.
16. I have difficulty with my high-school work, and I wonder if I should go to college.
17. I would like to earn a scholarship so that I can go to college, but I don't know who gives them or how to get one.
18. I worry because I wonder whether it is worth while to finish high school.
19. I don't seem to be getting anywhere in high school, so I wonder if I should get out and go to work.
20. I don't feel that I am getting anything in school that will do me any good. I feel like quitting.
21. I need to learn to make a living, but I'm not getting the training in school.

III

22. I work so hard to make passing grades in school that I don't have time to think about what I'll do in the future.
23. I'm afraid that when I graduate teachers won't recommend me for a job because they think I'm pretty slow.
24. I plan to quit school as soon as I'm old enough because schoolwork is not interesting.
25. I'd like someone to help me plan my future, but mostly I'm just pushed to make grades.

Now think about your future occupation and education. Is there something else that worries you? If so, write it in the space below.

Name _____

Grade _____

WORKING WITH PUPILS

The information and suggestions found in preceding pages were given in anticipation of a program of study and work with youth to help them meet their problems pertaining to the future. Since this category of problems includes pupils' worries about vocational choice, placement, and success and formal education and academic success, it is believed that the suggestions which follow may be helpful.

Choice, Placement, and Success. Working with pupils on matters of occupational choice, placement, and success involves the selection of occupations for study. Since it is obvious that no group could possibly consider profitably all known occupations in which people engage, there must be some *criteria of selection*. Hoppock * suggests the following:

1. The occupations in which substantial proportions of former students have found employment.
2. Other major occupations in the geographic area in which dropouts and graduates look for jobs.
3. Other occupations of interest to the students.

The use of such criteria as those given by Hoppock in selecting occupations for study and discussion has these advantages: First, the factor of pupil interest can immediately be capitalized; second, the number of occupations will be small enough to permit reasonably thorough study and understanding; and third, the identification of people with occupations becomes much easier.

By way of orienting both professional personnel and pupils with occupational information and data ultimately designed to assist pupils in choosing vocations, it is well to identify occupations in which a respectable percentage of graduates of the school found employment in recent years. For the school that has made a practice

* Robert Hoppock, *Group Guidance: Principles, Techniques, and Evaluation*, p. 26, McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., New York, 1949.

of following up its graduates, much information will be available in the files. The school that has not followed up its graduates over the years will find it necessary to locate these people occupationally. Students can assist in this matter in a variety of ways. They have older brothers and sisters, relatives and friends upon whom they can call to supply the school with much-needed information.

In following up graduates and former students, particular attention should be given to:

1. The date each left school.
2. The pattern of studies pursued by each while in school and the degree of success in these.
3. Extraclass activities engaged in by each student.
4. Part-time work engaged in by each student and his success in this work.
5. The present occupation of each.
6. The kinds of work each did and the training each availed himself of in preparation for the work he now does.
7. The relationships, if any, between the work the student did in school, the work he did in the interim between leaving school and attachment to his present occupation, and the occupation in which he is now engaged.

8. The relationships, if any, between results of personality and social-adjustment inventories and the work the student is now doing.

Once the major occupations now engaged in by former students are identified, it is necessary to classify these occupations. Such information as the following should be sought relative to each type of occupation:

1. Education and training now required for entering it.
2. The characteristics of people most likely to succeed in each occupation.
3. Wage scales and possible income to be expected.
4. Working conditions.
5. Work-time requirements.
6. Health protection and other personal benefits.
7. Occupational relations and costs.
8. Provisions for retirement, if any.
9. Cost of education and of equipment for those in occupations that are professional or highly skilled in character, and for those that require individual capital.

10. Opportunity for advancement.

11. Method of selecting people for the occupation.

In compiling this information, school people will find it necessary to contact representatives of those occupations which have been identified and classified. The types of occupations to be studied will suggest those to be contacted. For example, information about industrial positions should perhaps first be obtained from the personnel directors. They are familiar with job categories from management down, and, furthermore, personnel directors can usually supply the school with printed and mimeographed materials relative to the various occupations, screening devices, the selection of personnel, and other pertinent data. At the very least, contacts with these people can keep the school up to date on all matters pertaining to a particular industrial or business organization.

It follows, of course, that representatives of various occupational classifications can be called upon to supply firsthand information of whatever type is needed to advance youth's understanding of given occupations. Pupils can assist in the selection of those who are in a position to provide needed information. Guidance personnel and students should determine criteria for the selection of people from the work world who are to provide them with information about their respective occupations. Such questions as these should be borne in mind:

1. What information do we need?

2. When do we need this information?

3. What do we need to do in order to get the most from those who are to provide firsthand information and data about each occupation?

4. How can we help these people prior to their coming to us so that they can give us the information we expect within the time provided?

5. What can we do by way of following up these important contacts so that better understanding of the several occupations may result?

Formal Education. The occupational concerns of students, when identified and studied in terms of suggestions outlined in preceding paragraphs, will call attention to those pupils who question the wisdom of continuing formal education. There are those who contemplate dropping out of school before graduation, and there are those who wonder whether they should attempt to continue formal

studies after graduation from high school. Guidance workers may find that these students can be helped by group study and discussions of the several occupations of interest. They will also be able to help pupils see the relationships existing between education and their chosen occupations, and they will have established bases for individual counsel.

It is imperative to bear in mind at this point that individual counsel should seek to help each pupil (1) understand his potentialities as a person and as a student, (2) secure information that will assist him in matters of choice between alternatives, and (3) plan his program of studies in keeping with his best qualities and his needs for education.

Academic Success. Pupils who are worried about the possibilities of academic success can be readily identified. Here again, pupils have the right to know what they may reasonably expect of themselves in academic pursuits. It seems only fair that they know the truth in so far as it is possible to establish truth in relation to their abilities. It is suggested in this connection that the guide go beyond grades in school subjects, scores on intelligence tests, and similar data and attempt to discover the extent to which factors such as interest, motivation, and dedication to study may provide still other bases for counsel in relation to the continuation of formal education. For example, it is well known that pupils with average ability frequently excel in studies and in out-of-school life simply because they are determined to do so. Conversely, many pupils who have superior intellectual capacities sometimes fail or fall far short of normal expectations because of lack of interest or effort, or both. Some youth have no well-defined objectives toward which to work and consequently lack motivation. There are, to be sure, many other factors. It is suggested that the guide exhaust every possibility and means of finding out about individual pupils before presenting alternatives which might otherwise be unreasonable. Each young person is due no less consideration.

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CHAPTER 6 *Youth's Personality Problems*

The most pressing concerns of youth in secondary school are those having to do with adjustments they feel they must make to secure satisfactory status among their peers. These problems were presented and discussed in Chapter 2. The types of personality problems youth worry about most, and upon which attention is focused in this chapter, are closely related to their social worries. Each category of difficulties derives basically from a desire to be on good terms with other young people. Even so, the two should be differentiated for study, the better to see them in proper relationship.

In their statements of social problems, youth reveal that they are more conscious of social situations and the impact of these than they are of their own personal inadequacies, although there is evidence of some recognition of the latter. The emphasis is placed upon social situations which demand competencies they unhappily do not possess. In their statements of personality problems, on the other hand, young people indicate at once recognition of social situations with which they are not able to cope satisfactorily and some of their own personal shortcomings they believe to be causes of their difficulties. But stress is given to certain personal characteristics which, to youth's ways of thinking, are responsible for their social plight. As will be shown presently, it appears that pupils' personality problems may be answers to a question they may ask of themselves—this, for example: What is it about me that keeps me from being pleasantly associated with others?

It may be that a student's answer to the question above would not be the same answer that a competent psychologist would give *about* that student in answer to the same question. It is reasonable to suppose, however, that student and psychologist would not give

wholly different answers. The differences would probably be in number, and more certainly in depth of understanding on the part of the psychologist. But the fact that a considerable number of youth are sufficiently self-evaluative to name some of their personality difficulties is of singular importance at this point. Such pupils feel that they know some of their deficiencies and they realize the need for overcoming them.

TYPES OF PERSONALITY PROBLEMS

Boys and girls in secondary school define six types of worries that are classified as personality problems: (1) those having to do with poise as it relates to personality development; (2) those attributed to poor memory, lack of interest, and laziness; (3) those having to do with the development of tolerance and tactfulness; (4) those relating to the development of physical attractiveness; (5) those concerned with the development of taste in the selection and wearing of clothes; and (6) those involved in overcoming bad temper, selfishness, and jealousy. The distribution of these problems by age and sex is given in Figure 7.

Perhaps the most salient feature of Figure 7 is that both boys and girls perceive that what they are, how they behave, and how they appear as persons affect others' attitudes toward and acceptance of them. Less pronounced but no less important, the types of difficulties listed in Figure 7 also show that youth have more than a passing regard for the factor of self-esteem. In each case it is the self that youth want to improve. The types of problems named merely indicate what young people perceive as facets of their personalities in need of repair. But pupils may best be understood by permitting them to speak for themselves. Their statements of the several types of personality problems are given in succeeding paragraphs.

Self-consciousness, Timidity, Lack of Poise. Problems of this type indicate that the individual lacks some ability, trait, or characteristic which he can develop. It will be noted that these problems relate to the exhibition or performance phase of behavior, the aim being to impress others favorably. Here are some typical examples.

I need to develop poise so that I can enjoy being with people and they will enjoy being with me. *How can I develop it?* [Girl, 16]

I am too self-conscious, and people don't want me around. How can I get over it? [Boy, 15]

I'm too timid. How can I develop the poise I admire so much in other people? [Boy, 17]

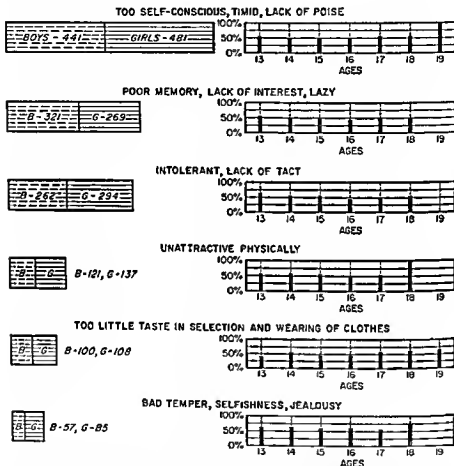


FIG. 7. Distribution of 2,676 references to six types of personality problems about which youth worry most, by sex (left); and percentage ratios of responses of girls to boys, by age (right).

I am self-conscious about the way I look. How can I develop a good personality? [Boy, 14]

I am too timid to have a good personality. How can I improve? I don't have friends—I mean good friends that I belong to a group with. [Girl, 15]

How can I develop my personality so that I can have the poise to be a leader? I'm too timid. [Boy, 16]

How can I overcome self-consciousness that injures my personality and causes me to be left out of social affairs? [Girl, 17]

Poor Memory, Lack of Interest, Laziness. It is probable that use of the terms "memory," "interest," and "laziness" represent convenient ways youth have of saying that they do not attach much value to some things other young people consider worth while. Note how they express this problem.

One of my worries is that I'm forgetful, and this causes people to think I don't care. [Girl, 16]

My problem is that sometimes I'm lazy. This makes kids think less of me. [Boy, 16]

I don't seem to remember some things I should, and it hurts me socially. [Girl, 15]

I don't have enough interest in what other people are interested in. Therefore, I don't seem to fit in as well as I'd like to. [Boy, 17]

Being willing to stick to something when the going gets tough without becoming lazy is one of my problems. Sometimes it isn't worth the effort, and kids lose confidence in me. [Boy, 16]

I have the problem of forgetting little things that others think so important, and that makes them dislike me. [Girl, 16]

I like to be with kids, but I'm not interested enough in many things it takes to get along well, and it hurts. [Girl, 15]

It worries me that I don't have enough interest, or I'm too lazy to get into the swing of school life. It seems this has done something to my personality. [Boy, 17]

I object when I have to do things that I'm not interested in. I'm lazy about things, and it makes others leave me out. [Boy, 14]

Intolerance, Lack of Tact. Problems of this type portray youth's sensitivity to others' unfavorable reactions to them in response to their own more or less negative behavior. The following statements are illustrative.

I need tact. I'm too quick to say what I really think about someone, and people don't like me for it. [Girl, 14]

How can I keep from expressing my opinion too freely? [Girl, 15]

How can I develop more tolerance of others? I am often sorry afterwards, and I am losing out all around. [Boy, 16]

I feel that my social life is ruined because I am too tactless. How can I overcome this? [Girl, 16]

I have a tendency to be intolerant of others, and it makes me an unwanted personality. [Boy, 17]

Teachers respect me because I make A's, but kids leave me out because I haven't enough sense to be tactful. I'd be glad to trade for lower grades if I could just have the kind of personality to get along well with others. [Boy, 16]

My personality is weakened because I lack tact and am inclined to be intolerant. How can I overcome this weakness? The two seem to go together. [Girl, 17]

I don't have enough patience with other people, and they don't like me for that. How can I get patience? [Boy, 15]

I am too blunt, and I wish I could quit being so, so that I would be popular. [Boy, 14]

Physical Appearance. Physical appearance is a component among the many which combine to form the personality of each individual. People knew this intuitively long before researchers became interested in personality study. And, although secondary-school youth are unschooled in the scientific study of personality, they are quick to recognize that physical appearance is part of it. They know that more often than not they may be judged or typed depending upon how they appear. They are aware that the phrase "he appears" does not necessarily mean "he is," but they know that if "his appearance" is favorable it means that he will most likely be given more opportunities to demonstrate what "he is" than his less fortunate neighbor.

The premium placed upon physical appearance by youth may be seen in the following statements of problems.

I need to wear glasses, but I hesitate to put them on because they detract from my appearance. [Girl, 16]

My teeth protrude, and they say if it were not for that I would be pretty. [Girl, 16]

My problem is that people call me "skinny" because I am slender. [Boy, 15]

Because I am very tall I sometimes have trouble associating with people my own height and age. [Girl, 15]

I am smaller than other boys my age, and they don't treat me as if I were as old as they. [Boy, 15]

How can I take off weight? It's a handicap. [Boy, 17]

It gives a girl an inferiority complex to be called "shorty." [Girl, 17]

I am not a good physical specimen, so I'm known by all the kids as a

"good egg." This is getting me down. What can I do about it, if anything? [Boy, 16]

I'm dumpy, and that's what they call me, and it is embarrassing. [Girl, 14]

I have a grey streak in my hair. People are always asking me questions about it, and they call me "gramps" or "old folks." I try to bluff it out, but I'm sensitive about it. [Boy, 17]

Dress and Grooming. Whatever else that might be said about dress and related matters of grooming, people are more or less convinced that "it pays to look well." Young people especially want to appear well. They do not even try to separate grooming and personality. But let youth tell their own story.

Some girls seem to know just what clothes to wear, just how to use make-up, and just how to do their hair to bring out their personalities. I think I would have just as good a personality as they do if I only knew how to select things to wear and use cosmetics as well as they. But I don't, and it almost makes me ill at times. [Girl, 16]

I don't make a good personal appearance when I dress to go out because I don't know how to groom myself well enough. [Boy, 16]

My hair is not naturally pretty. Where can I get advice about what to do so that it will help my personality? [Girl, 15]

People think kids my age don't care how they look. That is not so. We don't want to go around all dressed up all the time, but we care how we look when we need to look good. We'd have better personalities if we knew. I know I would, and I'd like to know how to look my best when I need to. [Boy, 15]

My face looks like it has been sandpapered when I shave. This keeps me from looking my best, and it makes me self-conscious. [Boy, 17]

I can't act my best when I know I don't look well in my clothes. I have taken homemaking, but there wasn't much attention to grooming to suit the personality of the girls. Some girls can get help at home, but I can't. [Girl, 17]

As I see it, all kids need to know how to dress and groom themselves to help their personalities. This needs to be taught early. I'm penalized because I don't know, and I worry about it. If I knew I'm sure I could belong to the group I'd like to go around with. [Boy, 16]

The Problem of Temper. The inseparability of temperament and personality is intuitively recognized by most laymen. Psychologists regard temperament as constitutional raw material out of which personality is developed. The layman, on the other hand, views tem-

perament in terms of manifest emotional reactions. Hence such descriptive terms as "even-tempered," "high-tempered," "calm," "moody," and so on. To have a nasty temper is no compliment to its possessor. Consequently, youth who have bad tempers worry because they are unattractive to others. They express their concerns by such statements as these:

I wish someone could help me control my temper. It gives me a bad personality. [Girl, 14]

When I don't blow up I'm moody. Either way I'm told I have a nasty personality. Is there any way I can get help? [Boy, 15]

They say I'm a charming personality so long as I keep my temper under control, but I can't seem to do it and it hurts deeply. [Girl, 16]

I have a habit of losing my temper too quickly when things don't go to suit me. [Girl, 15]

Quick temper has caused me to lose out with the kids I like to be with. I seem to get worse instead of better, and I'm worried about it. [Boy, 16]

I'm afraid my personality is ruined because of my temper. I asked a boy I've known always why I'm not included in things any more and he told me my temper made everyone unhappy. Now I'm afraid I can never pull myself together. [Girl, 16]

My personality is shot because of my high temper and moodiness. I get along fine for a while, and then it happens. I'm losing all my friends, I'm afraid. [Boy, 17]

Since the personality problems of youth as described above are obviously associated with interpersonal relations that are not satisfying, some may question the wisdom of considering them apart from social problems. It may readily be observed that they are, after all, problems in social adjustment. This is readily conceded. Each set of problems discussed in this book involves adjustment to certain phases of the social world in which young people live. And each group of problems involves personal concerns about making satisfactory adjustments to life. It is conceded further that for guidance purposes it is practical to consider closely related problems together. It is impractical, however, to believe that mere consideration of related problems simultaneously will provide the *causa sine qua non* for wholesome personality development. The factor of relatedness is without doubt critical, and guidance workers must have sufficient understanding of the types of problems which should be considered

together in order to provide for youth the opportunities and the means of overcoming their difficulties. The parts need to be examined to discover their functional relationships to one another and to the whole—in this case to the whole personality.

If the reader will look back to youth's statements of their personality problems, he will discover that boys and girls give prominence to appearance, behavior, and feeling. Their problems are rooted in and stem from the human phases of their environment. Young people therefore recognize that adjustment depends to a considerable degree upon the individual person—how he regards himself and how others regard him as a personality. They have consequently personalized their difficulties; they have taken the this-is-my-shortcoming approach. The statements from youth also show that they are sufficiently aware of some of the tasks they face as developing personalities to permit rather sharp differentiation between personal qualities which are acceptable and those which are not. But youth, like many of their adult associates, have as ideals stereotype personalities which are quite unrealistic and therefore unattainable. The resulting dissatisfaction with oneself is bound to produce a certain amount of frustration.

It is obvious that each young person is struggling for self-realization. Each senses that he is different in some respects from others, but he seems frequently to strive to be like someone else. The guidance worker thus has one of his major jobs cut out for him, namely, that of helping each pupil achieve the goal of self-realization. And his efforts will be more productive if he understands that personalities differ and permits his understanding to suggest ways of working with each youth that suits the youth's individual needs.

WHY PERSONALITIES DIFFER

There is something about every human being that distinguishes him from every other person. He can always be identified as the individual he is. He may change his name, he may alter his dress, he may have removed or drastically modified some of his facial characteristics, but he can still be identified. He has certain physical, intellectual, emotional, and social characteristics that mark him as a person, that set him apart as an individual personality.

It is not the purpose here to delve deeply into personality as a

subject of study. That study has been undertaken by eminently qualified people, some of whose works are cited herein. Moreover, the student who aims toward becoming an effective personnel worker will engage in further study of this subject. It is the purpose here to touch upon this important subject only as it fits into the context of the present discussion.

There is no uncomplicated approach to the study of personality. Study of the whole person is involved. This seems to be a widely accepted truth, but one which is very difficult always to apply. Attempts by competent psychologists to define personality indicate something of its complex nature. This one, from Allport is illustrative: "Personality is the dynamic organization within the individual of those psychophysical systems that determine his unique adjustments to his environment."¹ This definition of personality certainly suggests study of the whole man. Indeed, it is a working definition to the development of which Allport devoted the entire book. Even so, neither Allport nor other students of personality claim to understand fully this phenomenon for, as Murphy² wisely stated:

When it comes to studying the whole man, we are confronted by three ways in which he refuses to cooperate. First, his traits do not seem intelligible in their own right; they express something complicated going on inside Second, some of the phases of this inner structure are hidden, pocketed off, oriented with respect to some long-past situation which man had to confront; the students of conditioning and of psychoanalysis tell us we need to reconstruct the man historically after the manner of the archeologist. Often there is only a fragment and the reconstruction fails or is incomplete. Third, the man is reacting to something in the present we do not understand. We have, if you like, the response but not the stimulating situation, and we are driven into an arduous and often futile search for what the environmental structure means to him, so that the field relations will be clear.

It is implicit both in Allport's definition of personality and in Murphy's statement of the difficulty of man as an object of study that each person must be considered unique. This uniqueness derives basically from that which he inherits and from the interplay

¹ Gordon W. Allport, *Personality: A Psychological Interpretation*, p. 48, Henry Holt and Company, Inc., New York, 1937.

² Gardner Murphy, *Personality: A Biosocial Approach to Origin and Structure*, pp. 5-6, Harper & Brothers, New York, 1947.

of all forces to which he reacts. Each person is born into the world with certain biopsychophysical equipment which may be considered the basic raw material out of which personality is fashioned. A baby has no personality at birth. Personality is a developing characteristic. But the way it develops depends upon adjustments to a host of external factors which combine to form the environment of the individual person from the time of birth, as well as upon hereditary qualities.

As to the relative importance of those qualities which are hereditary in origin and those factors of environment which influence personality development, we are not prepared to say. It is obvious, of course, that some people are born with greater potentialities than others. Some have great intellectual potentialities while others have little, for example. On the physical side potentialities also vary from person to person. By way of illustration, no manner of good treatment after birth would develop all male babies into six-foot men. On the other hand, it is known that bad treatment can stunt the physical growth of children as it can stunt animal growth. It is equally obvious that a child may be born with the potentialities necessary for development into an intelligent, well-adjusted personality, only to be thwarted by his environment. Or, as Thorpe^{*} reminds us, his environment may at once encourage the development of his mental powers and scholastic ability and discourage the development of other personality traits. It is not uncommon to see a pupil in secondary school whose scholastic performance is brilliant but whose heterosexual adjustments are so inadequate as to cause him to avoid social situations whenever he can. Conversely, there is also to be found the pupil who is considerably less "bright" but who is well adjusted socially.

It is especially important that guidance people not permit the concept of uniqueness of personality to trap them into thinking of each personality as wholly different from all the others. This is just as bad as thinking in terms of adolescent stereotypes, a practice which, admittedly or not, appears to be one of the main reasons for blanket treatment of youth in so many secondary schools. No personality, if admissible to school at all, is so different from the rest

^{*} Louis P. Thorpe, *Personality and Life*, pp. 5-6, Longmans, Green & Co., Inc., New York, 1941.

as to require wholly different treatment. By the same token, no personality is so much like the others that the same treatment may be prescribed for all with any justification whatever.

COMMON AND UNCOMMON ELEMENTS

Youth in secondary school are the products of a common culture, regardless of great differences in the economic and social positions of their families. Young people are bound together by a common language, though it may appear at times a rather elastic binding. They can communicate, not only because they speak the same language but because they have shared many of the same classes and subjects from the time they first entered school; they enjoy many of the same movies and other forms of entertainment; they participate in the same games and other recreational activities; and now in secondary school they cheer in unison as their athletic teams take the field or the court against the teams of rival schools.

In addition to these and other important factors in personality development, each pupil in secondary school reflects the character of community institutions with which he has been associated—social, educational, religious, political, and business. To be sure, youth have not all been affected in precisely the same ways. No two people can be expected to react in precisely the same way to a stimulating situation. First, one will possess greater strength and speed of response than the other, and second, the moods of one are always different from those of the other. But such traits as honesty, fair play, cooperativeness, charitableness, respect for properly constituted authority, and many others which characterize most adolescents are the direct results of growing up in the home and community. Simply stated, there is a substantial core of common experiences shared by all youth, which produces the effect of unity when opportunities for unifying experiences are present and when the need is apparent.

But despite the fact that youth have so much in common, they seldom engage in social and other activities as one large group. Nor do they particularly care to do so. One group, for example, may dance to the music of an orchestra at the country club, while the other has no choice but to dance to music from recordings in a hall located over a downtown business establishment or in a roadside inn

where there is no cover charge. Both groups may dance to the same tunes, but they do not dance together. In other words, the common culture of which each pupil is a part and whose influences he reflects in many ways has its various subcultures. Guidance personnel and teachers should not deceive themselves by thinking otherwise.

Nearly everyone recognizes that there are different strata of society, and reference is usually made to groupings which tend to identify with the social and economic circumstances of life. For example, frequent reference is made to groups as belonging to the poor class, the lower middle class, the upper middle class, and so on. It should be borne in mind also that these several groups hold to certain standards which frequently differ somewhat as between classes and may have bases which include racial extraction, religion, income, and other such factors.*

It is common knowledge also that the elementary-school population is far more representative of the total population in most communities than is that of the secondary school. A larger proportion of children from all walks of life pass through elementary school. Although there are tensions among these pupils, they are seldom as serious as among youth because children in elementary school are less conscious of self and of social classes than older boys and girls. We see, therefore, a large group of pupils enter secondary school each year who are representative of the various subculture groups in which they have grown up. And it is precisely at this point that sight is so often lost of individual pupils and of certain groups of young people. This is due to the fact that most secondary schools are dominantly middle class in character. Middle-class social and scholastic standards are dominant. Teachers belong to this social class as do the people in the community who are most active in school affairs.* The net result is that all pupils who do not meet or approve the standards of the dominant group are in a sense outside the pale. And conceivably, these standards may be set by a proportionately small number of pupils.

Usually a substantial number of pupils who enter secondary school represent the upper- and middle-class strata. Generally these youngsters make their adjustments and go on to become effective members

* See, for example, Robert J. Havighurst and Hilda Taba, *Adolescent Character and Personality*. John Wiley & Sons, Inc., New York, 1949.

* *Ibid.*, p. 38.

of the dominant social group. Some, of course, do not. Boys and girls from other strata of society often adopt the standards and the ways of the dominant group and go through school without too much difficulty. But a considerable number find themselves catapulted as it were into a school environment which is strange to them and which seems to suggest that they must conform to the standards of the dominant group, come what may. As a consequence, a large group of capable pupils drop by the way before graduation.

It is feared that a great many school officials, teachers, and guidance personnel do not comprehend the possible bad effects of the impact of cultural conformity upon the maturing child. Blos* advances this failure as a chief reason for the rather stereotyped opportunities for youth in secondary schools. Perhaps the most charitable thing that can be said about common practice is that it tends to ignore so many of the factors which have shaped the character and personality of young people. The tragic consequence resulting from insistence that pupils conform to any arbitrary norm of behavior is that it obscures individual uniqueness of personality. It is literally driven from sight, and the young person often has no alternative but to fail in his attempt to realize individual uniqueness by forcing it back into the privacy of his own inner life. This is the price some pupils pay for the privilege of "getting along" in school. They know that individual variation, or nonconformity, is penalized. In other instances, conformity is impossible, and school therefore becomes untenable.

Those concerned with teaching and guiding youth should constantly remind themselves that each young person is living of necessity in a period which requires progressive orientation to life. The fact of maturation need not be elaborated at this point. Let it suffice that the adolescent must view himself as an individual person, and himself in relation to others, in a new light. His values change and his behavior changes, for old modes no longer satisfy his needs. He finds, as Zachry[†] declares, that his "... task in growing up is to master, as constructively as he can, his personal fate in this world."

In this period of life the youth often finds that past experiences in

* Peter Blos, *The Adolescent Personality*, pp. 494-499, Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., New York, 1941.

† Caroline B. Zachry, *Emotion and Conduct in Adolescence*, p. 24, Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., New York, 1940.

meeting situations are at best inadequate to the needs of the present. He has many novel situations to meet, some of which may appear in conflict with what he formerly did and believed. At other times, he must meet situations that are so relatively new that he has few if any bases for the behavior that seems to be required at the time. He strives therefore to differentiate those aspects of life to which there is more or less compulsion to adjust. And, in making adjustments, the adolescent first must be able to differentiate from the mass of details and meanings peculiar to his field those required to meet his needs at a given time; second, he must continuously enlarge his field to include more and more details and meanings so that he will not be forced to search for something that does not exist when he is urged on by the dynamics of life adjustment; and third, he must be able progressively to accept new details and meanings, lest his difficulties be compounded by successive failure to make satisfactory adjustments to life.

It should be clear at this point in the discussion that group association should not and probably does not make an individual any less like himself or any more like others. The personality seems to retain its uniqueness no matter what group it is attached to. And the tasks of adjustment are as individual as the person making them, irrespective of the group to which he belongs. From the guidance point of view, it should be stressed that the school has no business complicating the lives of pupils by insisting upon a set of social and other standards that are so different from those long since subscribed to that it is difficult if not impossible for pupils to embrace them. This would in effect mean a denial of individual personality and would discourage its development. Personality is essentially a social product, and its development requires a social climate to which it can adjust without the blight of denial and rebuff.

Perhaps in brief summary it should be said that each personality is different from all others because it is not possible to be otherwise. By reason of inherited qualities and experiences, each individual has his own unique reactions to life situations and his reaction at a given time is as a whole organism and in response to the situation as he sees it. And the way the individual sees a situation depends upon his "phenomenal field," upon his awareness of all aspects of life related to the situation demanding a response, and upon the degree to which he can accept those aspects of life which are related

to the situation which stimulates a response. This means that the situation which stimulates a response is never the sole determinant of the behavior it sets off. As *Blos*⁸ declared, behavior characteristics must of necessity fall short of giving a direct picture of personality. Behavior at any given time has a personal meaning to the "behavior." Behavior characteristics are at best only the raw material for an interpretation of personality. The inference here is that a fundamental understanding of personality involves getting at the below-the-surface feelings, the private-world aspects of individual personality which are frequently denied expression because of fear of running counter to normality in a given situation.

What has just been said should not give rise to the assumption that there can be no prediction of the behavior of adolescents in a given situation.⁹ Such prediction has been going on for no one knows how long, albeit intuitively. Otherwise, the human species would never have advanced sufficiently to produce the psychologists who in recent years have been able to contribute so much to the understanding of personality.

THE SELF, THREAT, AND PERSONALITY

The adolescent's major struggle is that of attaining and maintaining self-adequacy. This large task calls for adjustment to various life situations. For convenience, it may be broken down into a number of developmental tasks faced by adolescents. Tryon and Lilienthal¹⁰ give us these:

- Achieving an appropriate dependence-independence pattern
- Achieving an appropriate giving-receiving pattern of affection
- Relating to changing social groups
- Developing a conscience
- Learning one's psycho-socio-biological sex role
- Accepting and adjusting to a changing body
- Managing a changing body and learning new motor patterns

⁸ *Blos, op. cit.*, p. 5.

⁹ See, for example, Raymond B. Cattell, *Description and Measurement of Personality*, World Book Company, Yonkers, N.Y., 1946.

¹⁰ From Caroline Tryon and J. W. Lilienthal III, "Developmental Tasks: I. The Concept and Its Importance," *Fostering Mental Health in Our Schools*, Yearbook, National Education Association, Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, pp. 84-87, Washington, 1950.

Developing an appropriate symbol system and conceptual abilities
Relating one's self to the cosmos

It is readily seen that the several tasks just named encompass the major activities of life. Also, these tasks involve behavior on the part of the person attempting to meet life problems and at the same time develop the ability to meet these demands satisfactorily. It is not to be assumed that the adolescent is one day inadequate and the next day adequate to these tasks. He must grow in his ability to face them. This growth, in turn, requires continuous enlargement of the individual's field.

Reference has been made to the term "field." In the sense used here, the field ". . . includes all the universe of which we are aware—including not only the physical entities which exist for us but such other entities as justice, injustice, and public opinion."¹¹ Each individual's field is therefore his own, even though it may share much with the fields of other people. And, since each person's field is exclusively his own, it may be considered phenomenal. We may say, then, that the individual self is a "phenomenal self." Each person has the dual problem of self-maintenance and self-enhancement, and no matter what the individual is called upon to adjust to he adjusts in terms of his phenomenal field. It is from this field that he draws details and meanings needed when adjustments are to be made.

There seem to be varying degrees of clarity with which one is aware of any given parts of his field. These are due to changes which necessitate almost constant need for selecting from the masses of detail and meanings characteristic of one's field those which are needed, depending upon the condition or circumstance of life demanding attention and therefore adjustment. It seems, then, that one's field may well be constantly in a state of change. As Snygg and Combs¹² declare:

Changes in the field occur because of the individual's efforts to maintain himself and satisfy need. Each of us is constantly searching his field . . . for details and meanings which will better enable him to satisfy his need. This process involves a continuous change in the field, by the constant rise of new characters into figure and the consequent

¹¹ Donald M. Snygg and Arthur W. Combs, *Individual Behavior*, p. 16, Harper & Brothers, New York, 1949.

¹² *Ibid.*, pp. 28-29.

lapse of other characters into group. This process, from the point of view of the behavior, is one of increased awareness of details and is therefore called differentiation.

In his efforts to attain adequacy, the adolescent seeks also to achieve self-esteem, and self-esteem has as its correlative prestige. Self-adequacy, self-esteem, and prestige go hand in hand, and they are perhaps of greater consequence to the adolescent personality than at any other time of life. It follows, therefore, that failure to meet the usual demands of life is a blow that threatens the individual. Repeated failure can be very serious, for it produces fear and the failing person is under threat. In other words, when an individual feels that he is incompetent to meet satisfactorily a situation with which he is confronted or which he desires to meet, the self is said to be threatened and the situation is a threatening situation. There is a compulsion to deal with threat, and Allport¹³ postulates that this compulsion frequently gives rise to various forms of self-deception. One can deceive himself in many ways, and the techniques of self-deception are also numerous. Allport suggests the grouping of all of these under the one term "rationalization."

Authorities have produced evidence to show that the more pronounced ways of dealing with threat are projection, escape or fantasy, compensation, negativism, regression, and substitution, and, generally, rationalization is added. These techniques are used when one fails to accept differentiated aspects of reality. Their frequency of use depends somewhat upon the impact of the threat and upon the frequency with which the self has been similarly threatened in the past. Not all people, of course, deal with threatening situations in the same manner. An understanding of the techniques commonly used, however, will enable guidance personnel to comprehend the meaning of behavior of individual pupils when interpreted in the light of the situations which produce threat. Let us examine in more detail the various ways people meet or deal with threat.

Projection is a device by which a person sometimes ascribes his own shortcomings to another. One who is given to condemning others, thereby attempting to obviate self-condemnation, manifestly employs the technique of projection. Or he may identify himself with another person who does or says what he himself would like

¹³ Allport, *op. cit.*, pp. 189-191. See also Snygg and Combs, *op. cit.*, pp. 144-157.

to do or say but dares not for fear of threat to himself. Although it is a difficult process to observe, the person who uses projection to deal with threat is often guilty of justifying his own thoughts to himself. For example, an adolescent may think others plot against him by getting together and deciding not to include him in social events, when actually such a thought has never occurred to them. He may then be heard to observe that this boy or that girl dances poorly or says the wrong things when he or she is in a group. Again, an individual may protect himself by identification with a group. This provides what seems to him a way of showing how he feels and thinks without the necessity of bearing the consequences of action.

The person who meets threat by *escape* simply avoids coming to grips with life problems by taking flight into his own dreamworld. The flight may be pleasant or it may be self-punishing, depending upon the nature and intensity of the threat. Persistent use of this technique marks the person as being in almost constant flight from reality. His excursions become fantastic. Such a person denies or disregards the demands of his environment, and it never seems to occur to him that the use of escape neither helps him to meet situations nor removes the causes of his discomfort. He escapes by withdrawing into himself, where he dreams of success, where he triumphs in his imagination. Extreme use of escape or fantasy results in schizophrenia. Such a person is seriously ill; he is a pathological case, for he has surrendered himself to an unreal world that has existence only in his imagination.

Compensation may take form as self-justification and rationalization. Sometimes compensation is only an unconscious effort to deceive others, but it is also self-deception. This device is put to use most frequently when one fails to achieve, particularly when the failure is obvious to other people. The ego is then stimulated to triumph and the person compensates by seeking to discover or to create extenuating circumstances. He fancies then that he has reduced to a minimum the impact of failure. On the other hand, a person may compensate by refusing to recognize a threatening situation. He thus tends to deny the existence of a shortcoming or handicap. This produces a feeling of self-esteem. Again, one may see threatening situations and give them full recognition but compensate by changing his course of action and proceed to gain self-esteem by attaining success in another direction. This way of com-

compensating is sometimes laudable, sometimes not, depending to a great extent upon such factors as frequency of use, the ability of the individual, and the worthiness of purposes to be achieved.

Another device sometimes employed by people to meet threatening situations is *negativism*. One may perceive in a situation certain elements with which he is unable or unwilling to cope. He resorts then to the I-will-not attitude rather than entering into the situation. He may or may not be noisy about it. For example, one student may show clearly by speech and action that he has no intention of doing a certain class assignment. He may even be sharp enough to persuade the teacher to accept in lieu of the assignment another task he feels more competent to do. Another student may feel equally threatened by the same assignment, but his negativism is expressed in quite different ways. He may meet the threat by delay, which often results in a compromise that is much more to his liking. In both instances negativism "pays off" because each student feels esteem for himself. He has won what he considers a point.

There are people who resort to the technique of *regression* when confronted by threatening situations. An adolescent, for example, may attempt to gain self-esteem by trying to meet certain situations in the same ways he met them as a child. Such a person seems unaware that he has changed, that the situations are now different, and that to meet them requires different techniques on his part. One who is pronouncedly regressive may be so because his field is too limited to furnish details and meanings needed to meet situations, or because of limited perceptivity and ability to differentiate from past experiences the details and meanings which would aid him in meeting current life problems. In any case, persistent use of regressive techniques marks the person as below expectancy in maturity. Hence the expression "He acts like a child," or the command "Stop being childish." Such remarks may exaggerate the difficulties of the person to whom they are directed, but they usually result from observations that the person uses techniques of regression to satisfy his needs.

An individual who cannot remove a source of difficulty which causes him to feel inferior is likely to deal with this form of threat by the technique of *substitution*. It is not unusual, for example, to see a boy who is too slight to compete with his peers physically

substitute by excelling in his studies. Conversely, a youth who is not able to do well scholastically may substitute athletic prowess as a means of gaining self-esteem. It is readily observable that the use of substitution to satisfy need is not necessarily bad. For example, the physically unattractive youth who compensates by substituting social poise and charm *is to be commended*. It is unfortunate, however, when, let us say, a physically attractive girl compensates for social inadequacies by practicing endless hours at the piano for the applause she will receive upon playing before an audience. There is no reason why such a girl should not develop the several facets of her personality together.

Rationalization is used chiefly when a person acts in conflict with certain aspects of self and at the same time in accord with still others. He then justifies his behavior by playing up the self-enhancing aspects of his personality, and he advances these as reasons for his behavior and excludes those with which his behavior is in conflict. Persistent use of rationalization as a means of meeting threat tends to cause a person to lose sight of those aspects of self that are of most worth. And as a personality, the individual is in constant conflict with himself because he realizes his loss of peer status.

The foregoing ways by which people meet threat have been presented for the express purpose of helping guidance personnel understand some of the implications for personality development. The employment of these devices represents an effort on the individual's part to meet need, to reduce tension by making satisfying adjustments. The extent to which an individual resorts to the use of any of these methods is often indicated by his behavior; and behavior, let us reiterate, speaks volumes to those who understand it.

It should always be foremost in the thought of guidance personnel that every individual faces threatening situations now and then. One of the main objects of guidance is consequently that of helping pupils meet the situations of life comfortably. Otherwise, the traumatic effects of failure to make satisfactory adjustments will cause some students to resort to successive use of unreal ways of dealing with the forces which threaten them as individual personalities. They are then emotionally ill, and emotional illness can be one of the most serious of all illnesses.

SCHOOL AND PERSONALITY DEVELOPMENT

When information about youth's personality problems is available, the role of the school in personality development is not so complicated as some would have us believe. At the risk of repetition, we should like to stress the need for understanding youth as individual personalities. It seems reasonable to believe that an understanding of personality and its development would be the best assurance that every pupil would receive the kind of treatment from every counselor and teacher needed to enhance his own personality growth. If it could be remembered that youth's major task is that of securing and maintaining self-adequacy, self-esteem, and a decent measure of prestige, the creation of an in-school environment conducive to the development of these would be considered with much less apprehension than currently exists. The basic need is for personnel workers of all types to strive to guarantee that every pupil be given the challenge of mild stimulation to meet his life situations a little better each day and week of the school year. And each pupil should be accorded recognition for each success, no matter if it be relatively small as compared with that of another pupil. Success, after all, is relative; and in the sense used here, relativity is measured in terms of the individual's past performances.

It has been said that pupils' personality problems should be fused with social problems for guidance purposes, since personality is the product of the culture patterns in which the young grow up. It is of singular importance, therefore, that guidance workers study youth's personality problems in relation to others about which they are most concerned. To do so requires identification of types of personality problems of pupils to be guided. A sample inventory for this purpose is given below. It is fashioned from personality worries described in the first part of this chapter.

TO STUDENTS

It's My Personality

"There is nothing wrong with my personality. If it weren't for Blank's funny notions, we could get along."

Did you ever hear anyone say something like that? Perhaps you have,

and perhaps you haven't. But you have probably known several people who behaved as if they thought just that, even if they did not say it.

Most people feel sometimes that they would get along better with others but for something about them as persons. And the intelligent way to look at the problem is to ask: "What is it about my own personality that I can develop so I will be happier with myself and with other people?" Almost everyone wants a good personality. And why not? A good personality is worth something to its owner, and it is well worth working for. In fact, it must be worked for. It must be developed, for no one is born with a good personality.

So why not take stock now and see just what it is about your personality that you have thought about and that you can do something about?

A great many high-school students have named their personality worries. You may have some of the same ones. Look over the list which follows and when you see a problem that you, too, have thought about, place a check mark ✓ in the space before it. Then you are ready to do something about getting help and about helping yourself.

I

1. I feel that I need more poise when I am around other people.
2. I am so self-conscious at times that it makes me unhappy.
3. I am too timid to have fun when I go to social events.
4. I feel that my personality is not as good as it should be because I am so self-conscious about the way I look.
5. I feel that I am left out of social affairs because I am too self-conscious.

II

6. I am so forgetful that people think I don't care what happens.
7. I think I am left out socially because I forget things I should remember just to be nice.
8. I sometimes feel that I don't fit well in my group because I don't have enough interest in what others enjoy.
9. I feel others lose confidence in me because I sometimes become lazy and fail to stick to something that I want to see through.
10. It makes me angry when I have to do things I am not interested in.
11. I am not much interested in what others think important, so I prefer to be alone most of the time.

III

12. I know that people don't especially care for me because I am too quick to speak my mind.
13. I worry because I have the habit of expressing my opinion too freely.
14. I am afraid I am not making progress socially because I am too impatient with others.

15. There are times when I know I am not wanted because I am too intolerant of others.
16. I am too tactless to be popular.

IV

17. I feel that my personality is hurt sometimes because I wear glasses.
18. I often feel that I would have a good personality if my teeth were attractive.
19. People sometimes make jokes about me because I am too slender.
20. I am too tall and it makes me ill at ease.
21. I feel that I am handicapped by being overweight.
22. I have a slight inferiority complex because I am so short.
23. I am very sensitive because I have an unattractive physique.
24. My hair is not attractive, and I am sensitive about it.

V

25. I think it would help my personality if I knew how to use make-up properly.
26. I think I could improve my personality if I knew how to select my clothes.
27. My face always looks bad after I shave.
28. I can't be at my best most of the time because I don't look well in my clothes.
29. I can't go around with the group I'd like to be with because I don't know how to groom myself.

Name_____

Having identified problems by using this inventory and all other techniques at their disposal, guidance people may find it practicable to arrange discussions of personality. Pupils are usually very much interested and are capable of understanding a great deal about personality development. Such discussions should be related to problems in adjustment described in Chapters 2, 3, 4, 5, and 7. But in no case should a group of pupils be permitted to discuss the personality of one of their fellow students.

Finally, it is recommended that guidance personnel turn to suggestions made in the chapters listed above for clues for integrating the personality problems of youth. The relationships between these and other problems will then be made clearer to both guide and pupils.

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CHAPTER 7 *Youth, Part-time Jobs, and Money*

It is commonplace to hear adults discuss work and financial problems. We suppose that such discussions have been going on for a long time and that they will continue. There have been periods of low income and low prices followed by periods of high income and high prices. And always it appears that the economics of life are sufficiently variable to keep people talking about living costs, better jobs, and higher wages and incomes, with the inevitable conclusion by most that it is difficult to "make ends meet," much less save a few dollars. It is striking, too, that adults usually consider their economic problems no less serious when all eligible members of the family are working for fair wages. This is probably due in large measure to the fact that American people have acquired tastes which add up to an expensive standard of living.

Youth also have their job and money problems. They too are producers and consumers. They like good things and pleasant ways of life no less than their adult associates. But somehow their work-money worries are not always taken seriously. The notion still prevails in many quarters that school-age youth have their lives before them, and it is forgotten that they are living now and that the world they live in is expensive. There is a tendency to overlook the significant fact that it is in keeping with American tradition to believe that to work is to enjoy a privilege and that it is desirable to be relatively independent at an early age. Since worry is not chronic among most of them, youth are not given to concerning themselves about jobs and money without good reasons.

YOUTH'S JOB AND MONEY PROBLEMS

The job and money problems about which secondary-school youth worry are of four types: How to find and adjust to a part-time job; how to manage allowance and school expenses; how to earn money

HOW TO FIND AND GET ALONG ON A PART-TIME JOB

BOYS-324	GIRLS-229
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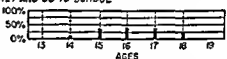
ALLOWANCE AND SCHOOL EXPENSES

B-266	G-222
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HOW TO EARN MONEY AND GO TO SCHOOL

B-156	G-88
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HOW TO SPEND MONEY WISELY

B-111	G-97
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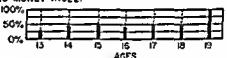


FIG. 8. Distribution of 1,493 references to four types of part-time-job and money problems about which youth worry most, by sex (left); and percentage ratios of responses of girls to boys, by age (right).

and go to school; and how to spend money wisely. Figure 8 presents the distribution of these problems by age and sex.

Reference to Figure 8 shows that 553 students indicated problems having to do with finding and getting along well on part-time jobs. A breakdown by sex reveals that 324 boys and 229 girls had this type of problem. Expressed in percentages, the total becomes 58 per cent for boys and 42 per cent for girls.

It was declared by 488 pupils that school expenses tend to eat up their allowances, thus producing financial worries. Boys registered this type of problem 266 times; girls gave it a frequency of 222. As will be shown presently, these young people generally feel that their

allowances and earnings have not kept pace with increased costs of school attendance.

It is likely that there are pupils in every secondary school who need to earn some money to sustain themselves while in attendance, and some pupils cannot attend school unless they work part time to pay expenses. There are still others who do not need to work while attending school but who prefer to work part time for spending money rather than request extra amounts of their parents. This type of problem was listed by 244 pupils. Of this number 64 per cent were boys and 36 per cent were girls.

Concern about wise spending was registered by 208 students. This type of problem seems to be of about equal concern to boys and girls, the percentage distribution being 53 and 47, respectively.

Let us now examine the nature of youth's part-time job and money problems in more detail.

How to Find and Adjust to a Part-time Job. It has been shown that a considerable number of youth in secondary school worry about finding part-time employment and about making satisfactory adjustments to conditions induced when employment is found. They state this problem succinctly. For example:

I need a part-time job, but I have trouble finding one because I am too bashful about asking for a job. [Boy, 16]

The trouble is that I have to change jobs too often. I guess I don't get along on the job, and I need to work part of the time. [Boy, 17]

I need to work part time, but I have trouble finding one where people treat you well. [Girl, 16]

I worry because I have to work and go to school, and my age is against me. [Boy, 15]

Is there anything a girl of fourteen can do to make some money to pay school fees? I need to. [Girl, 14]

Most employers expect school kids to do too much for too-small wages. [Boy, 17]

I need my job to help pay expenses, but I have a hard time getting along with the boss and others because I only work part time. [Girl, 17]

I have trouble mixing with people I work with. [Girl, 15]

Nobody tells me whether I am doing well in my part-time job. This worries me. [Girl, 18]

I work part time and go to school. It is hard to take, because I can't seem to get along with the others on the job. [Boy, 16]

Many of us kids need to work part of the time. We have trouble finding places. We don't have time to look them up. Could someone at school help us? [Boy, 16]

I would like to work part of the time, but I don't know how to ask for a job. [Girl, 16]

How to Manage Allowance and School Expenses. Many adults know what it means to try to reconcile additional costs with fixed incomes. Students are also aware of the consequences when they try to stretch their allowances to cover expenses. They are concerned particularly about what appear to be extra fees and other expenses incurred at school. Pupils declare:

The fees at school eat up my allowance, and I don't have money for other things. [Girl, 13]

My parents don't realize that what I buy costs more just as what they buy costs more. My allowance won't cover bare expenses and fees. [Girl, 15]

I'm in trouble because my allowance has not been increased to cover extra school fees and costs. [Boy, 14]

Does the school have to charge so many fees? I just can't stretch my allowance to cover essentials. [Boy, 17]

My parents give me a fair allowance, but we have to give so much and pay so much at school that it is like having your pay check cut. [Boy, 16]

Every activity and nearly every class at school calls for a fee. If you don't pay you just aren't in. This is a hardship for some of us. [Girl, 16]

Some nice kids in our school are cut out of things because they can't afford to pay the fees. They don't want to take charity either. I can manage to pay my way, but I don't think it is right to make school affairs so commercial. [Boy, 17]

How to Earn Money and Go to School. This type of problem worries two specific groups of pupils. There are those who feel that they must earn some money in order to remain in school. Others want to earn more during the school months either because they desire to be more independent or because of tensions which usually accompany the circumstance of "barely getting by." This problem is typically expressed in the following ways.

I have to make some money or I can't stay in school. It is nearly impossible to work out a schedule. This worries me. [Boy, 16]

I am distressed because I need a job to help support me while I am in school. It is very hard to arrange because of class schedules. [Girl, 17]

If your family depends on you to work to help out with expenses, what about schoolwork? Mine is suffering, but the school says I have to make a choice. I'd like to stay in school. [Girl, 16]

Making money to help me go to school is a problem for me. [Boy, 15]

I can't figure out how to earn a little money and go to school at the same time. I need to earn some money to stay in school. [Boy, 17]

I work part time and go to school. I need to work, but my principal and teachers say I should do nothing but go to school and study. This worries me. [Boy, 17]

I have to hold my job or get out of school, but my homework makes it very hard. I could do homework in some subjects, but some of it I can't do. [Boy, 16]

High school is easy. I'd like to work and go to school just so I could have the experience and a little money to spend or save as I please without accounting for every penny. I found a job, but I couldn't take it because the principal said kids are grouped in our school and he couldn't change my schedule. [Boy, 16]

How can a person earn a little money and go to school at the same time? I don't especially need it, but I'd like to make a little money on my own so I could feel free to do little things like surprising Mother and Dad with a gift or do something for a friend. [Girl, 16]

I feel useless sometimes just going to school and to social affairs. It would be fun to work and earn something while I'm in school. How can I go about it? [Girl, 16]

I waste time in not doing anything but going to school. I think fellows like me should work a few hours a week and go to school at the same time. We could do it and feel a little more independent. We are discouraged, though. [Boy, 17]

I just barely get by on school expenses each month. That's a strain. I need to work some, but every time I ask about a job at school I'm told they are being saved for the "needy." [Boy, 16]

Just squeezing by on expenses each month makes school life pretty dull. It's like having just enough money to get inside the fairgrounds—you can't get in for the shows. I know a lot of kids with the same trouble. We would like to work and go to school too, but we can't get it arranged at school. [Boy, 16]

Spending Money Wisely. The fact that pupils in secondary school concern themselves about wise spending may come as a surprise to some people. They are not, however, without a sense of values. They realize that economically it is necessary to operate within limits, but they admit at the same time that they need help in determining

values to apply when they are spending their money. This is evident by the following questions and statements.

How can we learn not to spend our money wastefully? [Boy, 15]

How to spend my money wisely is a problem for me. [Boy, 13]

When I start to buy something, I don't know how to keep from spending too much for it. Is there any way I can get help? [Girl, 16]

I have trouble learning to spend my allowance correctly. [Girl, 15]

How can I know when I'm paying too much for what I buy? I don't seem to get as much for my money as some people. [Girl, 15]

School kids spend a good deal of money, but most of us need help in spending it wisely. Is there any way for the school to help us? [Boy, 17]

I have more money than I really need, and I know I waste some of it. How can I learn to spend wisely and save? [Girl, 17]

In proportion, how much money should be spent on amusement and on lasting, worth-while things? [Girl, 16]

Most school kids need help with budgets and spending. I do. Are there any measuring sticks that can be set up? [Boy, 16]

A SUMMARY LOOK AT EVIDENCE

Having permitted students to present their concerns about part-time jobs and money, we now have a point of vantage. What these young people have said reflects certain *felt needs* which may be summarized as follows:

1. Some pupils need part-time work while attending school. Without it they face the alternatives of almost complete loss of personal dignity or of dropping out of school, or both. To a considerable number, this situation offers no choice at all. They prefer to drop out.

2. Some boys and girls "barely get by," but they need part-time work during school months to relieve the tensions which almost always accompany marginal existence.

3. Some youth need part-time work chiefly for the personal satisfaction it would give them—satisfaction in terms of experience and a sense of usefulness and of independence.

4. Some students need help in finding suitable part-time jobs.

5. Some pupils need guidance in adjusting to job requirements, including duties to be performed as well as employer-employee and employee-employee relations.

6. Probably all pupils need more effective consumer education and guidance.

7. *Every pupil needs a school that is sensitive to his requirements for guidance and other services; that is satisfied with no less than the most serious effort to meet its real, not imagined, obligations to him; and that is conscious of the consequences of policies and practices and willing to modify these with dispatch to meet the criterion of effectiveness.*

HOW DID THEY GET THAT WAY?

Recently a group of administrators and guidance workers were discussing the behavior of secondary-school youth. They remarked upon the attitudes of pupils, with emphasis upon lack of interest in school studies. Pupils, it was observed, want so much; they want to do so many things. In short, a considerable number of students are "problems."

An administrator finally asked, "How did they get that way?" This question gave rise to further discussion, including a number of observations, some good and some rather pointless. The guidance workers present insisted that pupils need to be understood. They confessed, however, that discipline cases consume too much of their time to permit this understanding. The discipline cases for the most part are not too serious, although a few pupils, of course, are delinquents. But most of the problems involve cutting school to work, refusal to "make up" quickly and satisfactorily school lessons missed, pupil-teacher friction, and as one person put it, "you know, the usual things you have to put up with when handling a group of adolescents in this day and time."

There seemed to be general understanding of the phrase "usual things," but there was no evidence that the majority present felt that they could go back to their jobs considerably reinforced. They seemed rather to expect conditions to remain essentially unchanged, although the meeting adjourned with this problem before the group. How can we help our pupils understand that their most important job during adolescent years is that of taking full advantage of opportunities they have for education? With no thought of belittling the group that made the pronouncement, we should say this problem is of sufficient magnitude to break up almost any meeting.

This brief narrative should not close without the observation that the schools and the people who represented them are fairly typical. The schools, particularly the senior high schools, include the usual offerings and services which gave rise to the descriptive term "comprehensive"; and they do not differ much from most others in that the academic subjects, more or less traditionally established, occupy the usual place of prominence. Personnel representing these schools are academically respectable, serious, hard-working folk who sense that their jobs are not being done well enough but who, for many reasons no doubt, stand hesitant and insecure before the doors to progress, not realizing that these doors will remain forever closed to all who stand and wait.

Let us return to the question raised by the school administrator about youth, "How did they get that way?" and examine it in the context of this chapter. Here are some probable answers to this question.

First, it bears repeating that American youth are the products of a heritage that has basically stressed the dignity of work and the desirability of being self-sustaining as early as possible. This concept is so much a part of tradition that all able-bodied men, whether from necessity or from choice, must work or be regarded with a degree of disfavor. In more recent years, women in ever-increasing numbers have taken places in the world of work, thereby taking full advantage of the principle of equality and of the dignity-of-work concept. And it may not be mere speculation to suggest that in the near future able women who are not homebound by family responsibilities will be expected no less than men to engage in useful employment.

Second, it is traditionally American to look upon work as a privilege, and it is believed by many that citizenship and the right to work go hand in hand. And certainly the right to choose one's field of labor is a right which belongs to the individual.

Third, in contrast to the days of not so long ago when youth could be employed on their parents' farms and in their own small businesses, young people now seek work opportunities through employment services. This projection of youth into the labor mart has sharpened their desires to make the most of whatever opportunities they may find to get experience and to receive pay for it. Within the limits of labor laws and employment regulations, youth are

strong competitors for certain types of jobs. This fairly recent development, plus the aggressiveness with which young people go after what they want and need, has brought them to the attention of adults to an unprecedented degree. And, with the possible exception of parents, teachers and other guidance functionaries are probably more sensitive to this impact than any other adult group with whom young people come into contact.

Fourth, the industrial revolution not only relieved man of much physical toil; it also brought him leisure and gave him the means for great mobility during his free time. As a consequence he has been free to enlarge upon his experiences in hosts of ways. This freedom has been passed on to children. It could not reasonably be denied them. But youth are freer still because of the conviction of a great many parents and other adults that they should be given a large measure of liberty in the interest of personal development. It is not the purpose here to go into detail on the ways, good and bad, adolescents use their freedom. Let it suffice to say only that they are generally much better acquainted with what goes on outside home and school and that youth now are probably more generally aware of what they are up against in life than were their elders when they were in secondary school. It is reasonable to assert, therefore, that pupils in secondary school may not be expected to respond favorably to treatment which involves studies and controls that were once thought proper but are now seriously to be questioned. And administrators, teachers, and other school personnel should be reminded that the concept of freedom has gradually been extended to include the right of the young to question, even to protest, the treatment they receive at anyone's hands.

Fifth, along with the extension of freedom given the children of America, there has been accorded them a corresponding measure of independence. The two go together, for the one cannot exist without the other. And youth, no less than adults, will not relinquish independence willy-nilly. On the contrary, they are disposed to increase their independence, even at the expense of considerable effort and, sometimes, personal sacrifice. To youth, therefore, there can be no reasonable request for the relinquishment of independence unless at least three conditions obtain, namely, that (1) the sacrifice is temporary, (2) the sacrifice is justified, and (3) there is reasonable

assurance that independence will be fully restored when the need for sacrifice no longer exists.

Sixth, American youth live in a land of abundance. Science and industry together have produced great varieties and quantities of goods and services for consumption by the people; and progressively these have been brought within purchasing reach of more and more of the population. Whether or not people should be able to share equally all the good things of life is not the question. The point is that the very presence of so wide a variety of consumer goods and services, much of them fashioned particularly to appeal to teenagers, serves to create tastes and whet appetites for them. To possess and to partake combine to form a *status quantum* in the minds of young people. Some pupils of course have more material possessions than others; but to have or not to have is seldom enough. What one has may be quite sufficient on the one hand or miserably inadequate on the other. To the one all the comforts of life and more may be freely given, while the other must produce them by his own labor if he is to have them at all. There are many other boys and girls whose circumstances place them between these two extremes. There is, however, a fairly common desire on the parts of most youth to provide some things for themselves independently of benefactors.

Seventh, there occurred in this country during the last half of the past century a slow but sure shift from a produce-everything-you-can-at-home to a work-for-money-and-buy-it economy. The present century saw an accentuation of this movement, and there appears to be nothing on the horizon to suggest a reverse shift. Present-day youth are products of the past few years. They know nothing about such crises as depressions, for example. It is difficult, if not impossible, for them to understand parental talk about producing things instead of buying them. The idea of putting high-value labor into, say, the raising of garden greens that can be bought for a few cents a bunch just to say, "I grew these," makes little or no sense to adolescents. Youth know only that people work to get money so that they can buy things other people work to produce and to sell.

"But," one may ask, "is this not a bad state of affairs for our young people?" Frankly, we do not know. Some people admit without a feeling of guilt, however, that they quit raising vegetables at the back of their lot some time ago and would like it understood that some of the same circumstances of life just described in answer

to the question "How did youth get that way?" no doubt caused them to abandon vegetable gardening. They cannot compete with the professional farmer and prefer to use their leisure in other ways.

ENFORCED IDLENESS AND ATTITUDES TOWARD WORK

Still fresh in the memories of a host of parents and teachers of secondary-school youth are the depression years of the 1930's. They remember the jobless days, the bare pantries, the soup lines, the almost insufferable circumstances which gripped families with fear and hopelessness. The freshness of these memories and many others carried over from those dark days are in some measure responsible, perhaps, for the apprehension with which many people regard the future. One hears on every hand the prediction and fear of another economic depression. Is it coming? We do not know. We hope not. It is hoped that men may understand that depressions like wars are man-made and that the one should be worked against no less than the other.

But suppose there should come a period of enforced idleness for millions of youth. What, then, would be their attitudes toward work? Would they be better able to adjust to such a condition than youth were in the past? Would present-day youth be apathetic toward work for the sake of producing something that might be bought with money they would earn if they were working for wages?

We doubt that anyone knows the answers to these questions. It may reasonably be supposed, however, that young people today are little, if any, better fortified to adjust economically, emotionally, or otherwise to long periods of enforced idleness than were their counterparts of any past generation. Nor are adults, for that matter. Why should they be? Ours is a work economy. That is the essence of American tradition.

This does not mean that schools should abandon the idea of the old cardinal principle, "worthy use of leisure." It should continue to be a goal of secondary education to help pupils use leisure time constructively. But leisure should not be confused with enforced idleness. In the context of the educator, leisure time is the time one has to use as he chooses *in excess* of the time required by his vocation. Any other form of "leisure" is probably not worth educating for. Leisure can mean nothing constructive when it is enforced. No

country can stand when its people are not productive, least of all the United States.

Elsewhere attention is given to vocational and leisure-time aspects of guidance. The concern here is not primarily for either, although there are implications for both. The nature of youth's job and money problems which were presented in preceding pages of this chapter suggest that (1) for guidance purposes they be construed as immediate needs; (2) for those having such worries, they are personal concerns of youth; (3) they are mostly school-year problems; and (4) guidance in terms of these problems can be rather direct. It may well be added that the right kinds of work experiences may provide youth with the best possible equipment for meeting life situations in the years that lie ahead.

PROBLEM IDENTIFICATION

Although guidance people can be practically certain that some pupils in the school in which they work have job and money problems quite like those described earlier in this chapter, discovering the extent to which these problems are present and identifying them with individual youth are necessary steps to be taken. Here again it is believed important, first, to examine on a school-wide basis pupils' free-response statements of the problems of most concern to them. This permits a view of particular types of difficulties in relation to all others of concern to pupils; it establishes reliable points of initial emphasis for guidance purposes, thus capitalizing on the interest factor among pupils; and it reveals many subtle meanings behind pupils' statements of problems which might otherwise remain obscure.

Having studied youth's problems in this impersonal way, guidance workers may devise an inventory by which individual pupils may identify those problems about which they are most concerned. The following is illustrative of such an inventory.

DEAR STUDENT

It is a fact that many students in junior and senior high school worry about part-time jobs and money problems. Perhaps you do, too. If you do, read through other students' statements of their worries, and check

those you worry about. Listed below are samples of students' worries gathered from many schools much like your own.

Part-time Jobs and Money Problems

I

1. I have to work part time, but I have trouble getting a job.
2. I have to change jobs too often because I don't seem to get along well on the job.
3. I have to work and go to school, but I have trouble finding a part-time job because I am not old enough.
4. I need to work part time so that I can pay school fees.
5. I feel that the boss expects too much of me for what he pays for the part-time work I do.
6. I have difficulty getting along with those I work with because I work only part time.
7. I have to work part time to help pay expenses, but I don't know how to find a job.
8. I need help in finding a part-time job.
9. I don't have money to buy other things I need because school fees take nearly all of my allowance.

II

10. My allowance doesn't cover what I have to buy. My parents don't realize this.
11. I can't join in certain activities at school because I can't afford to pay the fees.
12. So many collections are taken up at school that my allowance doesn't go around.
13. I often wonder why school affairs cost so much.

III

14. I have to earn some money or drop out of school, and I have trouble because I can't work out a schedule.
15. I can't join in anything at school because I have to work to pay expenses.
16. I have to work part time to stay in school, and I worry because my homework is often in subjects I can't do by myself.
17. I have to work and go to school, and I have a hard time making passing grades.
18. I am afraid I'll have to quit school. I have to work, but I have been told that I can't do both.

IV

19. It worries me because I don't know how to spend my money wisely.
20. I never know how to keep from paying too much when I buy something.

21. I need help so that I will know better how to spend my allowance.
22. I'd like to know how to save a little money out of what I get.
23. I'd like to know how much of my money to spend for entertainment and how much of it to spend for something I can keep and enjoy.

If you have other work and money problems, write them in the space below.
If you would like some help with your work and money problems, check the statement below.

I would like to have someone help me with the problems I checked.

Name _____

TIME FOR REALISM

It is an understatement to say that it is time for those in charge of secondary education to face realistically a situation that is quite contradictory. Despite the fact that much is made of large enrollments, there still remain to graduate from high school only about 50 per cent of the pupils who enter the seventh grade. This percentage is entirely too low to be shrugged off with little or no concern. A contradiction lies in this startling fact, when it is considered in light of the more acceptable belief that secondary education to meet their requirements should be provided for *all* American youth.

The fact that so many boys and girls leave school before graduation has by no means gone unnoticed. Many published and unpublished studies have been made of dropouts, all of which sought to discover why youth leave school. Nor have these studies been fruitless. Again and again, schools have been known to increase their holding power as a result. But the fact still remains that too many youth leave school as soon as they may legally do so. And in instances where compulsory-attendance laws are looked upon with disfavor, youth leave school at still earlier ages.

It is not the purpose here to go into lengthy detail about why pupils drop out of school. It should be observed, however, that other investigators are in substantial agreement with certain findings reported by Dillon¹ in a study he conducted for the National Child Labor Committee involving some 1,300 students in Michigan, Indiana, and Ohio who left school before graduation. He attempted to answer, at least in part, the question: "Why do youth quit school before graduation?" He found that youth drop out for such reasons

¹ Harold J. Dillon, *Early School Leavers*, National Child Labor Committee, New York, 1919.

as preference for work instead of school, lack of interest in school, need for money, dislike of certain subjects and teachers, the example of friends who had left school, and poor health. Dillon pointed out that the primary reasons for leaving were related *directly* to school. It was found also that about one-half of the pupils who dropped out of school left without consulting a teacher or a counselor. About one-half of the dropouts had no regrets for having left school.

A large portion of the dropouts had some suggestions which they thought might have made considerable difference in their attitudes toward school. For example, they suggested that more work experiences might have been provided; more instruction and guidance related to the vocations would have been helpful; and more personal contacts with teachers were needed. They also suggested that it would be helpful to provide more pupils with opportunities to participate in school activities, to change courses, and to be permitted to transfer to another school in those districts boasting more than one secondary school.

It is plain that job and money problems of young people are closely related to the dropout problem. This and other implications should be considered realistically by school people. Steps should be taken promptly in the interest of masses of youth, aimed toward halting what appears to be reckless waste of human resources before we are forced one day to regard what is left of this great potential and say what was said by those who looked upon the depletion of natural resources, "Large was our bounty."

SOME SUGGESTIONS FOR GUIDANCE

Thus far in this chapter, youth's problems having to do with part-time jobs and money have been described, information has been presented to help school people understand something of the significance of these problems, and suggestions for identifying individual pupils with certain types of difficulties have been made. Accordingly, some bases for guidance activities have been established which may be found useful. Several suggestions are offered in paragraphs that follow.

Finding and Adjusting to a Part-time Job. Having identified pupils who have trouble finding and adjusting themselves to part-time jobs, guidance personnel will know immediately the extent to which the school provides assistance in these matters. If the school maintains

a placement and follow-up service, each youth should be helped to utilize this service to the maximum. This involves help in getting the job as well as adjusting to the new conditions which normally result. For example, upon taking a part-time job, the student usually finds that he has certain adjustments to make which are related directly to school. In all probability his schedule changes. It may be that his entire program of studies has to be reshaped to permit him to work part time. He may also discover that it is necessary to sacrifice study periods, thus making it essential that he do more independent study outside school hours. In this connection, his teachers should understand that the pupil has special problems; they should accord him as much individual time as they can while he is in class; they should be as nearly certain as possible that the outside or independent study assignments are of the sort the pupil can do reasonably well on his own; and where there is doubt in teacher's minds, they should either modify assignments or give the student enough help while he is in school to assure reasonable success in his studies when he works alone.

Upon taking a part-time job, the pupil frequently finds it necessary to revise his system of values as they relate to school activities he normally participates in. These range all the way from having a soda with his friends before or after school to participating in school-sponsored activities and social affairs. Frequently, pupils need the systematic guidance of someone who can lead them to see that some things have to be forgone when one takes on part-time work. Otherwise, some pupils may find themselves unnecessarily frustrated when they can no longer cater to several desires.

Pupils who work part time have to make on-the-job adjustments. They soon become aware of employer demands. They need to understand the legitimacy of these demands and the necessity of adjusting to them. They also need to understand that in most cases there are other employees besides themselves in the organization where they work part time, and that relationships with fellow employees involve teamwork as well as human relations. Guidance workers should therefore help pupils to anticipate these problems and to go beyond preparation for the initial step into the job situation and assist them in making adjustments.

The school should assume considerable responsibility for its pupils who work part time. In addition to the responsibilities mentioned in preceding paragraphs, the school has perhaps an even more demand-

ing obligation in seeing to it that work experiences are conducive to pupils' best development. There should be some rather definite criteria of work experience for youth. Leonard ² names the following:

1. Is work experience respected as a legitimate phase of the school program, thus receiving proper approval of the pupils, the teachers, the parents, and the employers in the community, so that a boy or girl who participates in the program does not feel that he is engaging in a socially undesirable activity?

2. Is proper credit toward graduation given for participation in work experience, so that the activity does not become an added out-of-school burden to the already overcrowded school program?

3. Are pupils assigned to work experiences in terms of their interests, their desires, their capabilities, and the purposes which such experiences can serve different individuals?

4. Are the curriculum and the work experience activities of the pupil so closely interrelated that each contributes to the other?

5. Are the work experiences supervised extensively by one who understands the nature of youth and the normal conditions and demands of productive work so that pupils function in a normal situation and have the advantage of competent direction?

6. Is the work experience program administratively planned by the cooperative action of management, labor, business, industry, community, and educational leaders?

7. Is there an effective program for evaluating work experiences in terms of their success in developing occupational competence, knowledge of working conditions, and understanding of pertinent actions in community life, and personal habits of industry, responsibility, and pride in accomplishment?

8. Is there opportunity for pupils to receive proper pay for work which adds to the store of goods and services and which yields profit or values to others?

9. Are youth adequately protected in their hours of work from accidents and disease and from undesirable moral and ethical conditions?

10. Is the work which youth do desirable and necessary work which makes a contribution to the community, the home, or the school, or to the production of goods or services?

11. Does the program of work experience function so that it provides a variety of experiences for each youth to develop the many qualities he will need to be a competent citizen and worker?

² J. Paul Leonard, *Developing the Secondary School Curriculum*, pp. 534-535, Rinehart & Company, Inc., New York, 1946.

12. Is the competence of youth judged in terms of normal standards for productive work rather than in terms of standards which are "soft" or unduly sympathetic to youth?

13. Is the work experience program related to the guidance program in such a way that the guidance program functions in the selection of work experiences, in the analysis of success or failure, in the change of jobs, and in final placement after leaving school?

14. Is the work experience program extensive enough so that *all* youth in school have opportunities to participate in it according to their needs?

This is undoubtedly an ambitious set of criteria, but they are fundamentally sound. It is believed that every school may apply some if not all of them. There may also be other criteria more readily applicable, but there should be criteria.

It is assumed here that proper educational significance is attached to work experiences of pupils. Aside from the fact that part-time work provides a means of meeting certain specific and immediate needs of youth, it also should provide them with learning experiences of far-reaching consequence. The school's guidance program should be of such nature that each pupil involved feels himself in partnership with a group of adults who place his welfare first. This type of team relationship will open the ways for numerous activities, such as occupational studies in the local community; studies and discussions of problems related to job needs, placement, and follow-up, with emphasis upon adjustments required of the part-time worker; and studies and discussions of work in relation to the personal and social development of the individual and in relation to group life.

The Problem of School Expenses. Although secondary-school pupils specifically mention the problem of expenses in relation to their allowances, it may be assumed that this difficulty is far more widespread than references to it would indicate. It has already been shown, for example, that still more students imply this type of worry when they talk about jobs, inability to participate in social and school affairs, and similar problems. The reference to allowance and school expense probably is an indirect reference to the over-all cost young people and their families bear in connection with schooling. It is natural in the circumstances for them to think first of the money-in-pocket item called allowance.

Administrators, teachers, and guidance workers in secondary school should examine the costs required of the students in at-

tendance. They should face the question, "How free is our public secondary school?"

There have been studies of school fees and other costs incidental to high-school attendance. Two of these studies are cited here. One was made by Hand * and reported in 1942. He asked this question of 150 high-school principals: "Is the cost of attendance so great that poor children find it prohibitive?" These principals did not think so. They estimated the annual cost to students in their schools to be an average of \$7.50 per pupil. Hand also studied six high schools located in the Middle West and the East and estimated that costs to pupils ran as high as \$125 annually.

Jacobson † also studied this problem. His study involved 134 high schools. He discovered that the average cost for 19,459 pupils was \$81.96 per year. The average cost of pupils in communities of less than 1,000 was \$58.50 annually, with the average increasing to \$103.50 in communities of over 100,000 population. Jacobson found also that costs rose steadily from the ninth to the twelfth grade.

The studies just cited appeared several years ago, but there is nothing to indicate that costs are any lower at the present time. When such studies are considered in light of the reasons why pupils drop out of school, nothing could be clearer than that there are children of some families who simply cannot afford to attend secondary school. Of course, it is frequently stated that young people can ill afford not to attend school and that there are compulsory-attendance laws which require them to do so in the interest of so-called "minimum education" and as a guarantee against the exploitation of children.

There is general agreement with the ideals and the principles underlying attendance laws and with the argument that no youth can afford to drop out of school. But there are certain human factors and emotions which often are not considered and which are incapable of being legislated. The factor of peer status, for instance, is always present, and there are few if any adolescents who can remain emotionally stable when isolated by certain barriers which they see no possibility of removing. The ideals and principles under-

* H. C. Hand, "America Must Have Genuinely Democratic High Schools," in North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, *General Education in the American High School*, p. 13, Scott, Foresman & Company, Chicago, 1942.

† P. B. Jacobson, "The Cost of Attending High School," *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-school Principals*, 28:3-25, 65, January, 1944.

lying compulsory school-attendance laws in this country also imply education and guidance fashioned especially for those who go to school either willingly or unwillingly.

The subject of school expenses has been discussed with many administrators, guidance workers, and teachers. A discouraging number of administrators and some teachers usually hasten to advance the argument that the school is in no position to hand over funds to its pupils. Most people know that. It is known also that this argument is often a weak attempt to obscure the real issue. Interestingly enough, in many of these same schools it was found that the fee system was well established. Activity fees, for example, ranged from \$2.50 to \$5 per semester. Pupils were also expected to pay library, laboratory, and book fees and to buy standard equipment and supplies. In some instances club fees were collected from participating pupils. Add to all this the extra events and the campaigns in schools for funds for philanthropic purposes and it is easy to see why some pupils worry about expenses. Perhaps the resulting sums are not great, but they are often too much for some pupils to afford.

Each school may well examine critically its policies relative to fees and other expenditures required of pupils, including pressure for purchase of such things as standard clothing and equipment for boys' and girls' physical education. Such a study should be made with due regard for the principle of free public education. Here are some questions that should be answered.

1. Precisely how much money is each pupil supposed to spend under our present system of requirements?
2. What is the total expenditure per year for these requirements?
3. What percentage of the student body actually pays and purchases to the full amount of our requirements?
4. Can we justify educationally these expenditures by pupils?
5. What about students who cannot pay? How do they manage? How do they regard their own positions in the school as a result of their economic circumstances? How are they regarded by those who do pay?
6. What about the legality of our policies relative to fees and other required expenditures?
7. How is fee money spent? Who determines the criteria of these

expenditures? Who makes the purchases? Is there legitimate accounting of all funds taken in at the school?

8. Are parents and other taxpayers fully aware of the policies, practices, and amounts involved in the schools' fee system and in other requirements for the expenditure of money by pupils?

9. Is it possible that our present system serves as a blind to keep local support at a minimum?

10. What would be the local reaction if we periodically published complete reports of our activities involving the collection of fees and other monies—if we showed them each time the increase in assessed valuation needed at, say, a three-mill levy to produce this amount of money?

We could list other questions pertinent to the topic under discussion here, but these are sufficient for the purpose. Should such questions be raised? Probably, and, furthermore, the answers should be provided and made public. If it then appears justifiable to continue some of or all the present practices, ways and means should be provided for all pupils to participate. Some will need help, but assistance should be provided in such ways that these pupils do not become objects of charity. The personal integrity of each is sacred, and each should be helped to secure a job, or awarded one at school by which he can earn sufficient money to meet his obligations. Stress should be put upon the necessity of paying pupils in this category so that they may in turn pay their own fees. This is much better than charging those who work for the school with the amount and then simply clearing their account after the work has been done.

It is also suggested that, in cooperation with pupils and parents, periodic studies be made of other costs incident to attending high school. Cooperation in such an enterprise should be easy to secure, and the results should be highly beneficial. It is worth emphasizing that pupils should participate in planning and conducting such studies; otherwise they may not be expected to make use of the findings.

How to Earn Money and Go to School. Pupils who have this type of problem include those who need to work and those who want to work for experience and to satisfy the desire for partial independence. There are those in the latter group who feel they waste time that could be spent profitably on a part-time job. They state frankly that their studies are easy for them to do. Both groups frequently have

the common difficulty presented by inflexible scheduling in school. Sometimes, too, pupils who have part-time jobs are pressed so hard by teachers' demands that they worry for fear they must either give up their jobs or leave school.

It seems practical only to suggest that pupils having this type of problem be identified and arrangements made to help them meet their needs. For those who must depend upon earnings from part-time work to stay in school, it is regrettable that they should feel that they must make a choice between work or school—that they must give up one or the other. For those who are called on to put forth relatively little effort to earn good marks in school, it is equally unfortunate that the school schedule will not allow them the rewarding experience of doing part-time work. Finally, those who have part-time jobs should be accorded the assistance necessary to make both school and job experiences profitable.

Wise Spending. The goal of economic efficiency has long since been accepted as one of the objectives of secondary education. This is a major objective, and its implications for instruction and guidance are many. In its broad sweep, it regards the individual as both a producer and a consumer. It aims toward maximum occupational efficiency and the development of a sense of values which will permit the individual to get the greatest possible benefits from the fruits of his labor. This involves the wise use of money, which, in turn, suggests consumer education and guidance.

Here again attention is called to the fact that secondary-school youth worry about how to spend money wisely. It should also be observed that the economic aspects of life, although not mentioned specifically as often as others, are closely related to many other problems about which youth worry. Since this is true, the reader may ask why pupils mentioned the type of problem we are concerned about here so much less often than other types. In answer to such a question it should be said that in most cases the human being is much more sensitive to results or consequences than to causal factors. That is to say, *effect* is usually more painful or pleasant than *cause*.

It has been said that youth's concern about spending money wisely implies consumer education and guidance. Accordingly, the school should take a long-range view of this matter and begin to effect some curriculum changes, the purpose being to help pupils become more

expenditures? Who makes the purchases? Is there legitimate accounting of all funds taken in at the school?

8. Are parents and other taxpayers fully aware of the policies, practices, and amounts involved in the schools' fee system and in other requirements for the expenditure of money by pupils?

9. Is it possible that our present system serves as a blind to keep local support at a minimum?

10. What would be the local reaction if we periodically published complete reports of our activities involving the collection of fees and other monies—if we showed them each time the increase in assessed valuation needed at, say, a three-mill levy to produce this amount of money?

We could list other questions pertinent to the topic under discussion here, but these are sufficient for the purpose. Should such questions be raised? Probably, and, furthermore, the answers should be provided and made public. If it then appears justifiable to continue some of or all the present practices, ways and means should be provided for all pupils to participate. Some will need help, but assistance should be provided in such ways that these pupils do not become objects of charity. The personal integrity of each is sacred, and each should be helped to secure a job, or awarded one at school by which he can earn sufficient money to meet his obligations. Stress should be put upon the necessity of paying pupils in this category so that they may in turn pay their own fees. This is much better than charging those who work for the school with the amount and then simply clearing their account after the work has been done.

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intelligent consumers of goods and services. This does not entail a whole series of new courses of instruction. By the same token, it does not discourage the introduction of a new course of instruction if it is needed. It is believed, rather, that in most schools the wise course is to examine the present curriculum in terms of aims, content, and methods and revise these in terms of the consumer-education needs of pupils. Fortunately, some excellent materials for use by schools have been produced in recent years.⁴

The immediate-need character of pupils' job and money problems suggests that guidance and education for wise spending be closely related to the rest of their problems. Some youth want to work part time to earn spending money. It was suggested earlier that the school take the initiative and, with the help of pupils and others, study the costs of attending secondary school. This might well be extended to include total expenditures of youth. Young people's business affairs are most revealing, and teachers and other guidance workers should be aware of them. For example, it was a great surprise to the principal and staff of a certain school to discover the work and business activities carried on by boys and girls. In this little city of some 20,000 population it was found that in addition to the usual part-time jobs in local businesses, students were developing their own enterprises either alone or in partnership; and the character of these businesses ranged from growing and selling worms for fish bait to livestock breeding. Needless to say, a great deal was learned from pupils. But perhaps more important still, they permitted pupils to learn from one another. Especially significant was the fact that those among the students who were engaged in business affairs for themselves had much to contribute with regard to budgeting, taxes, prices, contracts, insurance, purchasing, and other economic considerations.

The homeroom lends itself admirably to studies and discussions of the problem of wise spending. Activities in the homeroom should

⁴ See for example the following in the Consumer Education Series, published by the National Association of Secondary-school Principals, Washington: No. 2, *Learning to Use Advertising*; No. 3, *Time on Your Hands*; No. 4, *Investing in Yourself*; No. 6, *Using Standards and Labels*; No. 7, *Managing Your Money*; No. 10, *Investing in Your Health*; No. 11, *Effective Shopping*. See also Oliver R. Floyd and L. B. Kinney, *Using Dollars and Sense*, Newson and Co., New York, 1942; Sidney Margolius, *How to Buy More for Your Money*, Doubleday & Company, Inc., New York, 1947; Isabel Wingate, *Know Your Merchandise*, Harper & Brothers, New York, 1944.

be closely related to studies and activities carried on in regular classes that deal with this problem. But care should be exercised lest pupils get the impression that the homeroom is merely an extension of regularly scheduled school subjects. It would thereby lose its advantage as a guidance center.

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(See also the Selected References at the end of Chapter 5.)

CHAPTER 8 *Youth's Health Problems*

It seems to be the consensus among adults that youth represent the healthiest segment of the total population. To them youth possess energy approaching the inexhaustible. They observe, moreover, that adolescents have generally passed that period in life when measles, whooping cough, and similar ailments are most common and that they have not yet attained the age when "adult diseases" begin to take their toll. Those who hold this point of view interpret good health as being the absence of diseases that are described and treated in physical terms.

It is feared that many administrators and teachers in secondary schools regard the health of adolescents in much the same way as do other adults. This is probably the main reason why guidance and instruction in healthful living have not been given sufficient emphasis in secondary schools. School people reason, of course, that healthful living is desirable and that youth and everyone else should live healthfully; but adolescents have been taught the rudiments of health in the elementary school, so why take them over the same ground again since, as one administrator put it, "they are old enough to know how to live healthfully." It is argued further that secondary-school pupils are not interested in health problems and that they therefore do not need systematic guidance and instruction in health as they need these services in other fields and areas of living.

More will be said about a defensible point of view on health education and guidance in later pages of this chapter. It should be noted in the meantime that secondary-school pupils are interested in healthful living, that they do need systematic instruction and guidance to help them live healthfully as individuals and carry their responsibilities.

ties as citizens interested in the welfare of their several communities, and that they can verbalize some of their health problems.

PUPILS' HEALTH PROBLEMS

When secondary-school pupils were given the opportunity to identify their most pressing health concerns, they listed six types of problems. Taken in order of frequency, these are (1) sufficient sleep; (2) abnormal weight; (3) teeth, eye, ear, nose, and throat trouble; (4) physical fitness, fear of illness; (5) proper diet for good health; and (6) effects of smoking and drinking on health, nervousness. Figure 9 shows the distribution of these problems by age and by sex, as given by 693 pupils.

It is clear from Figure 9 that boys and girls in secondary school are about equally concerned about health. There are only two exceptions. Girls seem to worry more than boys about their weight. Of the pupils who expressed concern about being over- or underweight, 57.7 per cent were girls. Boys, on the other hand, seem to be more concerned than girls about physical fitness. Of the total number of pupils who expressed a desire to know how to become and to stay physically fit, 58.3 per cent were boys. But we must go beyond the content of Figure 9 in order to understand better the health problems of youth.

The Problem of Sleep. Elsewhere in this book it has been shown that pupils often do not get enough sleep and rest to meet the demands upon their time without feeling fatigued. As will be seen presently, youth worry because they do not get enough sleep. They state this problem in the following ways:

I am nearly always too tired to get up in the morning when my mother calls me because I don't get enough sleep. [Boy, 15]

Getting enough sleep so that I don't have circles under my eyes is a problem for me. [Girl, 17]

I can't seem to get enough sleep and I have to work fourteen hours on Saturday so I don't feel like going to church on Sunday, and I work part time on weekdays and I don't get enough sleep to feel well at school. [Boy, 15]

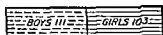
I worry because I can't get enough sleep and also have time for recreation. [Boy, 18]

I work part time and I never get enough sleep to feel rested. [Boy, 16]

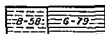
Getting enough sleep is a problem for me. [Girl, 15]

I never feel well at school because I have to study so late at night I never get enough sleep. [Girl, 15]

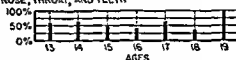
TOO LITTLE SLEEP



OVER-OR UNDER-WEIGHT



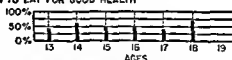
EYES, EARS, NOSE, THROAT, AND TEETH



KEEPING PHYSICALLY FIT; FEAR OF ILLNESS



WHAT AND WHEN TO EAT FOR GOOD HEALTH



NERVOUSNESS, EFFECTS OF SMOKING AND DRINKING UPON HEALTH

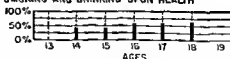


FIG. 9. Distribution of 693 references to six types of health problems about which youth worry most, by sex (left); and percentage ratios of responses of girls to boys, by age (right).

One of my biggest worries is that I can't go to sleep when I go to bed. I am always tired. [Boy, 15]

I do not get enough sleep because I can't go to bed until I finish my homework, and besides that I have a part-time job I have to keep up with after school. [Boy, 14]

For a year now I have not been getting enough sleep, and it is beginning to affect me seriously. [Boy, 17]

What chance has a girl who is much too stout and who hasn't some outstanding accomplishment to help her? Being overweight gives me many problems besides my health. [Girl, 16]

I've learned that fat people don't live as long as others. I worry about that, but not as much as I do about being left out and treated the way I am. Fat boys are funny to everyone else. Even if I can't live as long as other people I'd like to be treated like a normal individual. [Boy, 17]

I worry because I am on the borderline of being overweight, and I have a tendency to gain. I want to be healthy, and I don't want to be handicapped in other ways. [Girl, 17]

Worries about Teeth, Eyes, Ears, Nose, and Throat. Problems caused by unhealthy teeth, eyes, ears, nose, and throat produce considerable worry. Youth seem to realize that other complications often attend such difficulties. They typically state this problem by saying:

I have to wear glasses now. I think I am making some improvement, but I worry because improvement is not faster. [Boy, 14]

After completing my schoolwork and homework my eyes are too tired to knit, sew, read novels or do anything else that strains my eyes. I am worried about them. [Girl, 15]

I have had eyesight and it makes things tough for me, but I don't know what to do about it. [Boy, 17]

I am troubled because I believe I need glasses but my parents don't think I do. [Girl, 17]

My poor vision is a handicap to my ambition to study medicine. I wish I knew whether anything could be done about it. [Girl, 16]

My eyes are weak and I wear glasses, and it worries me because they bother me when I play. [Boy, 15]

I am deaf in my right ear, and it worries me all the time. [Girl, 14]

I have an infected ear all the time, and my problem is whether anything can be done about it. [Boy, 18]

I am handicapped in school because of being hard of hearing. I do well when I don't have to pass an examination on what the teachers lecture about. The strain often makes me ill. [Girl, 16]

My nose gives me trouble, especially in winter. I think I have sinus, and it causes me a lot of trouble. What can I do? [Boy, 15]

I think I must have hay fever or sinus. This is a problem for me. [Girl, 15]

My throat is sore nearly all the time. I try to go on without complaining, but it is hard to do, especially when I feel bad and teachers fuss at me for being lazy. [Boy, 16]

I have trouble with my throat. It is scarcely ever well during the winter. What should I do for it? [Boy, 17]

I have a problem with my teeth. They are not good and it worries me, but no one else seems worried much. [Girl, 14]

My family don't think kids my age should have tooth trouble, but I do. They looked in my mouth at school when I was a little kid, but they don't now. What can I do? [Boy, 14]

My teeth are not coming out right and they keep my mouth sore. This is really my biggest problem. [Girl, 15]

My teeth were neglected, and now at eighteen I'm having a lot of trouble. It looks as if I am going to lose some of them. Why can't someone give advice about such things? [Boy, 18]

After I left elementary school no one ever paid attention to my teeth, and I forgot. Now my teeth are crooked and are developing cavities. [Girl, 16]

Physical Fitness and Fear of Illness. Young people in secondary school express concern about their own physical well-being, and they frequently express fear that they will not remain well. Such problems are typically stated in the following ways:

I'd like to be stronger. How can I become strong and stay strong? I'm afraid I'll never be. [Boy, 13]

How can I have the strength to do what I need to do? I worry because I get tired too soon. [Girl, 14]

I'm in good physical condition most of the time, but I'm afraid of being sick and then I almost get sick. [Boy, 15]

I'm worried because I don't know how to build myself up physically. Girls need to be physically fit for life. I just want to know how to keep myself feeling well. [Girl, 16]

Boys should know how to keep in good physical condition. I often feel inadequate physically, and I don't think I should feel that way at my age. I'm afraid that I will not have good health. [Boy, 17]

I've been banged up in athletics all through school. I'm strong enough, I suppose, but I'd like to know how to take care of my body so I'll feel well and enjoy doing things that make for good living. I think we are torn down through athletics. [Boy, 18]

I guess I'm so afraid of being ill that I actually am more than I should be. When I worry about this I'm not regular and I get sick. I'd like to know how to be healthy and think healthy thoughts. [Girl, 17]

I wonder whether I'm just naturally weak, but I'd like to play on teams and be a part of things. I'm afraid I never will have the health I should. [Boy, 15]

I'd like to know how to become physically fit and stay that way so that I can have what is important to every girl—vitality! [Girl, 17]

I think there's something to health besides exercise, sleep, regularity,

and things like that. We kids have the pressure put on us, and it seems that we don't matter, and we worry about it. I do and so do others, and when I worry I feel rotten all over. [Boy, 16]

It seems all boys are supposed to be big and strong. I'm not, and neither are a lot of others, and I never will be big, but I'd like to be in good shape and not be so afraid I'll be weak and sickly. [Boy, 15]

The Problem of Diet. That diet and eating habits have some relationship to health youth seem to understand fairly well. They worry about what to eat and when to eat for health's sake. Here is evidence that they desire more information on the problem of diet.

Some things make me sick when I eat them, but I have to because they say I won't be healthy if I don't. [Boy, 13]

I dislike most vegetables. Should I eat them anyway? [Girl, 14]

I don't like many of the proper foods. Should I try to find substitutes or will I be unhealthy? [Girl, 14]

I'd like to know whether everyone should eat the same balanced diet if he is to be healthy. They all seem to think so. [Boy, 15]

A problem that worries me is whether or not I get the right kinds of food. [Boy, 17]

We aren't given enough time for lunch, and I get indigestion every day from trying to eat a good meal in fifteen minutes. [Girl, 15]

The problem of eating at the right time worries me. I don't like to eat breakfast at 8:00, then have to eat again at 11:30, and then have to wait until 6:30 before I can eat again. [Boy, 16]

What to eat and when to eat is a problem that worries me. [Girl, 16]

I know that one is supposed to eat the proper foods to be healthy, but what is proper food for me doesn't seem to be for other people. I'd like to know how to have the right eating habits for the sake of my own health. [Girl, 16]

Smoking, Drinking, Nervousness. Even though a relatively small number of pupils express concern about nervousness and about the effects of smoking and drinking, it is entirely possible that they say what many others would like to say but hesitate to do so for one reason or another. There is considerable evidence, in fact, to support the belief that commonness of practice and personal acceptance by youth are by no means always close correlates in this and other instances. Statements of problems which appear in preceding chapters of this book, as well as those which follow, tend to support this belief.

depends upon the extent to which groups of people work cooperatively to secure good health for all. And hopefully youth express a desire for information that has meaning for them and for guidance that will help them live healthfully.

AN OLD QUESTION

Does this not present a problem that is too large for the school? This is an old question. Conscientious people have asked it over and over again. And interestingly enough, those who repeatedly raise this question are generally convinced that the problem is too large to undertake because they are accustomed to think of worthy school activities as being only those that can be handled well by teachers with few involvements with people and organizations outside the school. If, then, this is to be the major criterion of guidance and instruction, the answer to the above question is obviously "yes." But this is the school-in-isolation concept that is no longer tenable in connection with any phase of the educational program, least of all health. The truth is that where health is concerned the school cannot stay out of it, and the head-in-sand attitude only complicates matters.

Perhaps one of the most pressing needs of leaders in the field of secondary education is a defensible concept of health. This means that sounder bases for beliefs about health should be sought and fashioned, for people tend to practice, and defend, what they really believe about this or any other phase of education. It is well, therefore, for those concerned with health education and guidance to check their beliefs from time to time in light of circumstances past and present.

A LITTLE HISTORY

History is replete with stories of man's continuous struggle against communicable diseases. At one time or another people of every nation have known the scourge of plagues, and they have all had periodic outbreaks of contagious diseases. The struggle seems to be a never-ending one.

It is true, of course, that scientific and medical discoveries have greatly reduced the incidence of such diseases as smallpox, tuberculosis, and yellow fever. Control is now so effective that many con-

tagious diseases are sporadic which only a few generations ago frequently occurred as epidemics. This is fine progress, making it all the more difficult to realize that for centuries people lived under conditions which caused them to accept plagues and epidemics as inescapable punishments for they knew not what, even though large segments of the population were frequently wiped out and survivors were left in pathetic states of weakness. They accepted also the high mortality rate of infants and of mothers in childbirth. Afflictions such as leprosy were regarded as evil diseases about which nothing could be done, and there was no idea that human refuse and other wastes should not be scattered about to breed more human suffering and destruction.

As civilization advanced in the western world, it was discovered that plagues often followed the docking of foreign ships. The Venetians observed this during the Middle Ages. They decreed accordingly that all ships having infectious cases aboard be quarantined for forty days. Information by observation no doubt helped some during intervening years, but diseases that could be passed on by direct contact, by rats, by blood-sucking insects, and by other indirect means were not to be substantially curbed. For example, people had to wait and suffer and die until Edward Jenner came along to give them the means of vaccination against smallpox. They waited much longer for Louis Pasteur, who, some eighty years ago, gave the world the knowledge that forms of life so small as to be *microscopic cause disease. This was the great discovery needed to advance the fight against communicable diseases.* Men of science went to work with renewed energy. They could now identify organisms (germs) that infected man and other animals; they could study the life cycles of given organisms and the cultures in which they thrived. Men also discovered means of controlling the spread of these enemy microorganisms. A wave of progress followed.

Perhaps man's most noble accomplishment to date is the extent to which contagious diseases may now be prevented and controlled. It is even more impressive when combined with modern diagnosis and treatment, including advances in the field of surgery. Even so, the fight to control and stamp out contagious diseases has not been completely successful. It may never be, but unfettered research and experimentation, general enlightenment, cooperation, and vigilance are the watchwords of progress toward the goal.

THE UNEASY PRESENT

Scientists and laymen continue to work tirelessly in order that communicable diseases may be held to a minimum. They work with and through the several health agencies. Federal, state, and local health organizations keep close watch to prevent disease, on the one hand, and to localize any unexpected outbreak, on the other. The work of established health agencies has two dominant characteristics. First, health organizations continue the search for more exact information and for the best techniques of applying expert knowledge. Second, all possible media are used to inform people of signs of danger and of steps they should take in event of the occurrence of communicable disease. But despite these efforts periodic outbreaks make for a never-ending state of uneasiness lest some fearful disease become epidemic.

NEW FRONTIERS

People today are challenged by many new frontiers in the field of health. Particular attention is currently being given to an array of diseases such as heart ailments, cancer in its various forms, and poliomyelitis. Year after year these diseases take their toll, sometimes in most tragic ways. Information relative to cause, prevention, and cure of such diseases is as yet limited. It may be predicted, however, that the time will come when much better measures of control and of treatment will be known.

Another frontier in the field of health is concerned with control of a multiplicity of diseases that are not necessarily fatal but are frequent in occurrence, for example, the many acute infections of the upper respiratory tract, such as colds, influenza, bronchitis, tonsillitis, and so on. Although much is known about infections of this order, prevention at present seems to be out of the question. It is known, for instance, that the common cold may be due to a variety of causes, it may occur in several forms, and, if left unchecked, it may result in serious complications, including pneumonia.¹

A third health problem seems to have been created by man himself. The machine age ushered in thousands of hazards to life and

¹ See Harold S. Diehl, *Textbook of Healthful Living*, 4th ed., pp. 281-306, McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., New York, 1950.

limb. Accidents in industry, on the highways, on the farm, in the home, and elsewhere annually take a discouraging toll of life, to say nothing of the toll in terms of disabling injuries and loss of economic production. But this is not all. To reckon loss from accidents would be to search through a maze of avenues of life that are seldom explored in the accounting. There are, for example, the survivor and the dependent, who may be partly or totally deprived of everything from money to affection at a time when both are needed most. An accident frequently sets off a chain of circumstances that are staggering in effect. It is small wonder, therefore, that accident prevention (which is the only sensible means of coping with this type of health problem) is currently given so much emphasis by so many people.

Thus far three frontiers in health have been introduced. In each instance the primary concern is for the physical well-being of man. There is yet a fourth frontier that is so relatively new and complex that it has, to many, a mysterious air. This is the frontier of mental health.

From what has been said thus far, sufficient information of a historical nature can be recalled to show that the concept of health was bound to emerge as a concept connoting the absence of disease. Until recently, health was a dominantly physical concern. If a man was not physically ill, then he was well. It had been long recognized, of course, that "well" people sometimes behaved oddly, even dangerously. But such people were usually regarded as being either queer or evil. It never occurred to their associates that they might be mentally and emotionally ill.

Tribute has been paid to those who joined hands to make so much more secure the well-being of the masses by protection against physical ills. Equal gratitude should be expressed for the enlistment of a relatively new science, which forms something in the nature of a grand alliance against all forms of illness. This science is psychology, which has as one of its major concerns the mental and emotional health of people.

Biologists and physiologists have long since rejected it, but the psychologists were the first to debunk the theory of dualism, which, in essence, divorced the mind from the body of man. Man is now thought of as being a total organism, enormously complex in structure, but nevertheless one whole organism. Some of his parts, or

organs, are not wholly different from those found in other animals of the higher orders. But man is different and is set apart and above by the fact that certain of his organs are capable of high degrees of specialization, the most distinctive of these being the mind. Creativity, sensitivity, regard for self, and the need for the esteem of others are particular attributes of man. There are others, to be sure, but these are vital in that any combination of circumstances which tend to thwart self-realization encourages poor mental health.

The factor of mental health has been discussed elsewhere in this book. Our purpose at the moment is to present this relatively new facet of the total health problem as a frontier to challenge the best interests of all people. Let it therefore suffice to make the following statements.

1. Mental health is just as important as physical health. The two, in fact, cannot be separated. Just as it is known that poor physical health often gives rise to poor mental health, it is also known that many of man's physical ills are psychogenic.

2. Mental illness is real. It is one of the most serious of all human afflictions. It does not kill, as some illnesses do. Those afflicted do not necessarily look pallid, or run high temperatures, or feel impelled to go to bed or to consult a physician. But they are ill.

3. Mental illness is sometimes hard to detect. Extreme cases can be detected by a layman. But there are many states of mental illness which exact heavy toll in terms of human happiness and productive living that only the competent psychiatrist can discern.

4. Mental illness is one of the most difficult of all illnesses to diagnose and treat. But here again science has been on the job, studying, experimenting, discovering, and defining, so that now much is known about the causes, the symptoms, and the treatment of mental illness. Still, there remains much to learn about this field of health. In the meantime, it seems safe to say that the demands for adjustment are frequently greater than individuals' ability to adjust, a problem producing tension and frustration. Not all people are affected to the same degree, but it appears that entirely too many are destined to live out their years in varying states of maladjustment to life—states that range from the mildly neurotic to the completely irrational.

The causes of poor mental health are manifold. Present information, however, suggests that they are basically social in origin, although there are known to be physical elements involved. That is

to say, the mental health of an individual depends much upon the degree to which he derives satisfaction from association with people in the home, at play, in school, at work, and elsewhere. Thus diagnosis is very difficult. The facts are hard to get in every instance, and treatment without facts is dangerous business. Consequently the major concern must be, and is, *prevention of mental illness*.

It has been said in effect that a people may be relatively free of diseases that are explained and treated in physical terms and still have a high incidence of mental-emotional illness. This takes into consideration the fact that, in the broadest meaning of the term, a mental illness may have a very specific basis. For example, arteriosclerosis or tumor may provide the cause. In such cases the illness would be explained and treated in physical terms. In the context of this discussion, however, mental illness and mental health are emphasized in relation to the social environment. We are concerned about those disturbances which are most often the products of the social environment and which are explained and treated in psychological terms.

This large and complex phase of health seems to have opened the eyes of the informed to the necessity for an all-hands effort at prevention. Consequently, an ever-increasing number of physicians, psychiatrists, psychologists, teachers, ministers, judges, columnists, and multiplied thousands of technical and lay leaders, both as members of organized groups and as individuals, are throwing themselves into the fight for mental health. It is the hope of all that success will be achieved. If so, it will be achieved through prevention, not cure. Since the human-being is the product of his social environment, it is believed that the best approach to mental health is to guarantee in so far as possible that children be given opportunity to grow up in a sound state of emotional repair. This implies that everyone and every group having to do with the upbringing of children, and with the social environment in which children live, must work cooperatively in the interest of mental health, just as they have cooperated to prevent contagious diseases.

SCHOOL AND HEALTH

The school is a significant part of the environment of nearly every child between the ages of five and eighteen. It is dedicated to the proposition that each child has the fundamental right to education

and guidance by which he may be helped to realize his fullest possible potentiality as an individual personality. The school is obligated to provide healthful surroundings and a program of education and guidance for healthful living, and it is responsible for leadership and attempts to capitalize on the total environment of pupils in order to refine and to make more effective its own practices.²

It seems, in fact, that education must be concerned with the full life of each pupil and with all phases of the environment in which children grow up.³ The school's role in this connection has been stated well by Oberteuffer: ⁴

School health education goes to the individual, to the family, to the group for the substance of its program. It seeks out the needs of the people to satisfy, queries to answer, perplexities to solve. It anticipates problems by having the means to the solution ready. It helps the student meet his concerns as they arise. It gives him techniques for better living. It studies the community, the state, and the nation for its directions, revealing as such study does the health status of the people. To reveal individual needs and supply them is its principal, its only important technique of development. It can justify its instructional and service aspects only as the proof of their need is demonstrable in the lives of either the student or the general public.

What does this imply in the field of health education and guidance? Are there, indeed, ways of stating goals that are in accord with the broader conception of health which now obtains? In answer to these questions, let us again turn to Oberteuffer.⁵ He maintains that the goals of school health are:

1. To secure behavior (action, conduct, habits) favorable to a high quality of living, and to point the way to those acts which, if performed, will assure this high quality.
2. To assist in the development of a well-integrated personality, enjoying life with no reliance upon false superiorities or inferiorities but with a stability rooted in a capacity for accurate self-appraisal.
3. To clarify thinking about personal and public health matters, to

² See *Health in Our Schools*, Twentieth Yearbook, American Association of School Administrators, pp. 11-19, Washington, 1951.

³ National Education Association and American Medical Association, Joint Committee on Health Problems in Education, *Health Education*, 4th ed., p. 2, National Education Association, Washington, 1948.

⁴ Delbert Oberteuffer, *School Health Education*, p. 7, Harper & Brothers, New York, 1949

⁵ *Ibid.*, p. 50.

remove the superstitions, the false beliefs, the ignorance; and to substitute the accuracy of science, where available, for the darkness of falsehood and misbelief.

4. To participate in the development of a security against the threats and destructible forces of the world through acquisition of scientific knowledge, the formation of scientific attitudes, and the practice of scientific behavior.

5. To enrich the life of community and commonwealth through the collective action of individuals well taught in the advantages of health measures to be taken for the common good.

6. To establish the ability in students to see cause and effect, to recognize consequences, and thus to preserve life and the fullness of it.

IMPLICATIONS FOR SECONDARY EDUCATION

From the statements of pupils' health problems at the beginning of this chapter and in other chapters of this book, and from the discussion to this point, there seem to be some rather clear-cut implications for secondary education. First, administrators and teachers should realize that good health is a goal to teach for and to aim toward; it is not a burden to be assumed or rejected, depending upon the particular bent of a school faculty, because, if for no other reason, the school and the faculty are important parts of the environment of pupils, and the environment should be a healthy one in all particulars. Beliefs, therefore, should be stated and checked in light of the obligations to youth and to society. This step is mentioned first because any school represents by its program of services to pupils, through content, methods, and activities, the thinking of those who staff it. It will scarcely rise above, and it will not likely fall much below, what administrators and teachers honestly believe the school ought to be in relation to pupils and to community.

When the first step has been taken, it is proposed, secondly, that a determined effort be made to discover the health needs of pupils. This involves consideration of the health problems of society. Children represent society, and society literally engulfs children. The principle of inseparability of pupils, school, and society is perhaps more applicable in this connection than in almost any other of the school's relationships.

It should be expected that pupils' health needs will fall into several groups, which may be categorized under two main headings, physical needs and mental-emotional needs. On the physical side

there are problems ranging from personal hygiene and diet to accident prevention, and from correctible deficiencies to communicable diseases. On the mental-health side of the question of needs are to be found all the emotional involvements of growing up. The problems of youth as set forth in this and other chapters make a good basic list of pupil needs. The school has only to identify them with individual pupils and to supplement them wherever new needs appear.

A third important implication for secondary education is that its program of instruction and services be examined in light of specific and broad health needs. The various subjects of instruction, the food service, and the physical environment should be measured by the standards of healthful living. Every member of the professional staff should look to his methods and to his treatment of pupils with the intent to be an ever more positive influence and contributor to the mental health of each.

Fourth, the school should aggressively seek out all channels by which it may work with community health agencies and by which it may use the services of these. Every possible means should be used to bring into closer liaison the school, professional people in public health, and all others who have a contribution to make in the realm of health. Otherwise, services rendered by doctors and nurses, for example, will be taken at best, and groups will continue to regard one another with considerable reserve and will profit little by the presence in the community of the others. Worse still, students will not have the opportunity to receive much-needed information and become experienced to the degree required to develop proper attitudes toward health as an individual concern and as a concern of all the people.

Fifth, youth demand of the school that it be realistic and mature in its approach. The approach to health should be no different. Young people need information. They want it straight and in applicable form. What is more, they can help to get information, and they can help put it into its most meaningful relationships. Health records, though necessary, do not tell all of the story and, when kept closely guarded, offer little direction for action.

Instruction and guidance in healthful living, approached realistically, can easily be vitalized. To do so requires that youth be able to enter into the program. They must be active participants, searching, reviewing, discussing, and generalizing their own and com-

munity health problems. It is by such processes that they grow in ability to particularize problems, thereby getting direction for action. Youth must be able to intellectualize their health problems. They know that healthful living is more than tooth brushing, muscle building, and athletic prowess. It includes these things in moderation, no doubt. But there is much more, and youth are aware of it. The school is therefore obligated to help young people see that health is a major social function; that it is involved, complex; and that although it is an individual matter, group action is the best course to follow to secure healthful living for all.

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CHAPTER 9 *Guidance, a Function of Secondary Education*

It is simple enough to say that guidance is a function of secondary education. This statement has been made over and over again, but for one reason or another, or for a combination of reasons, guidance in the best sense of the term is not yet as clearly recognized a function as, say, the teaching of English or mathematics or history, if one must judge according to practice. And one must in this case. The assumption here is that guidance is a function of secondary education, and that in practice guidance of youth should be accorded just as much attention as any other of the school's major functions. But this happy state of affairs is not likely to come to pass without thinking about guidance in the total frame of reference to secondary education. Guidance must also have meaning in the minds of secondary-school people—principals, special guidance workers, and teachers—and they must permit modern concepts of guidance to find expression in their efforts to provide this service for all youth.

A LOOK AT OURSELVES AS EDUCATORS

There is a strong tendency among personnel in secondary schools to break up into a considerable array of interest groups. Principals, supervisors, classroom teachers, and counselors all join organizations and associations to which they give allegiance and in which they manifest considerable interest. But this is not all. Each group tends further to subdivide into special-interest groups. This is particularly true of teachers. These people are given to grouping themselves upon the basis of school subjects, with not infrequent regroupings by grade

levels: English, mathematics, physical education, speech, social studies, industrial arts, music, homemaking, art, social studies, and so on through the entire curriculum. Special interests among professional personnel are to be commended; but they are commendable and defensible only to the extent that they contribute in integrating ways to the achievement of the larger purposes of education by accomplishing the specific objectives which are derived therefrom and which provide the reason for being of special interests in the first place. The *special interest* which does not meet this criterion is a *vested interest* and contributes very materially to a state of affairs which has several tragic aspects:

1. The vested interest defends the *status quo* as to purpose, content, and procedure.

2. It exists for its own sake, and it is placed above the welfare of children.

3. It is usually defended without regard to its relationship to the larger program of studies, activities, and services the school embraces and attempts to provide, and without regard to the fundamental needs, interests, abilities, and purposes of pupils who attend the school.

4. It runs counter to the concepts of democracy as applied to education.

5. It tends to draw and to sharpen lines of difference between teachers, between teachers and pupils, between teachers and the administration, and between school and community.

6. It is based upon the erroneous assumption that the school is the product of an unchanged and unchanging society.

It is not the purpose here to explore fully all facets of secondary education. It should be said, however, that until such time as professional personnel accept a tenable philosophy and psychology of education, agree upon *defensible goals to be achieved*, and unite as one in the achievement of these goals, there is no alternative but for the secondary school to fall short of its obligation to young people *in particular and to society in general*.

A LITTLE BACKGROUND

A few moments spent in retrospect will show that the *status quo* in relation to secondary education exists more in the minds of people

generally than in those of the society responsible for the development of the school. Nothing is more encouraging to those interested in education for adjustment than to see that the pupil has come more and more (though at a tragically slow pace for the most part) to occupy the focal point of educational thought and planning.

The American secondary school as it is known today is a thoroughly indigenous institution. It is as unique as the American way of life. It has not always had its present characteristics any more than has the American way of life. The school has always reflected somewhat the will of the society it so typically represents in many ways, changing as society changes. Brief consideration of the evolution of the secondary school makes the foregoing truths stand out in bold relief.

The First Secondary School. The first secondary school established in this country was the Latin Grammar School. It had its beginning in Boston in 1635. It included a very narrow range of studies, with emphasis upon Latin and Greek. The chief purpose was to prepare a small number of boys for college in order that they might either become clergymen or be assured the status of "gentlemen."

The major requirements for admission to college in 1635, and for some years later, were evidence of ability to read and to speak Latin and Greek with considerable facility. Only a few persons were expected to go to college in those days; therefore, admission to the Latin Grammar School was usually granted upon the basis of a high social and economic rank. "Was this not undemocratic?" the reader may ask. Certainly, just as undemocratic as were the colonists at that time. It is only realistic to point out that the early-day colonists who ran away from Western Europe to escape restrictive influences made a serious effort to impose many restrictions of their own in their new-found land. Education of the masses was not conceived of at that time. Democracy had not progressed that far. The ultimate aim of those who made the Latin Grammar School possible was to establish a small cluster of intellectual aristocrats.

Secondary education in the United States was limited to schools of the Latin Grammar School type for approximately a century. During this period institutional development was notable, and along with these developments came the Academy.

The American Academy. Benjamin Franklin opened the first academy in the United States in 1751. It was situated in the young and vigorous city of Philadelphia. Franklin's Academy was founded as a response to the ever increasing demand for a type of education that was more useful to the larger group of young people—that group who would not go to college. The Academy developed out of conditions of hurried growth, for the colonies were growing up. The thriving young country was then about to declare its independence from England.

The academy differed from the Latin grammar school in three important ways. First, it was a terminal school. That is to say, it sought to prepare young people for the business of living. Second, the curriculum was broadened to include many practical subjects, such as bookkeeping, surveying, and navigation. Third, Franklin's and subsequently organized academies were tuition schools. In some instances, academies were run by people as business enterprises. Some were endowed but nevertheless charged tuition. Still others were supported in part by communities, in part by tuition, and in part by private subscription.

The administrators of the academy were generally privileged to establish the type of instructional program they considered best. This condition made for an extension of the democratic concept of education for all youth, for, to a greater or lesser degree, the academies catered to the people. And the people were responsive—so responsive in fact that the type of education offered by the academy swept the country, supplanting the Latin grammar school in most areas. But the academy gave way, in turn, to the public secondary school.

The Public Secondary School. The very nature of this country made for rapid extension of democracy. People had enough room to move about, and they found resources by which they could live well when they moved. Any attempt to regiment the colonists was futile once they became established. They reserved the right to express themselves on all matters pertaining to the welfare of the individual, and on all matters which seemed to affect the individual's neighbors. Efforts to clamp unwanted restrictions upon these people were looked upon with disdain, and they usually responded simply by moving on to new territory, taking their freedom and democracy with them.

This general extension of democracy as a way of life included education. People were thinking more and more of public, tax-supported schools. Finally, after a period during which wars and readjustments were the most challenging items on a long list of imperatives, the first public secondary school was established in Boston in 1821. This institution thrived because it was the people's school. But it must be remembered that progress was fairly slow for some time following the opening of the first public secondary school. The bad years from 1830 through the sixties took attention away from this institution. It actually struggled along without status until 1874. This was a momentous year in the history of secondary education in America. In 1872 the people of Kalamazoo, Michigan, had voted to tax the citizens of that community for the support of education above the elementary level. The legality of this step was challenged, but a ruling handed down by the Michigan supreme court in 1874 stated in effect that a majority of citizens in any community could tax themselves and others in the community for the support of education above the elementary-school level. The Kalamazoo case has served as a precedent for court decisions in other states where the legality of public, tax-supported secondary education was questioned.

The public secondary school grew slowly until 1890. From that time forward, it has shown phenomenal growth. Some seven million boys and girls now attend secondary school each year, but the increase in enrollment is only one of the many developments in secondary education since 1890. Curriculum offerings have expanded enormously. Now the extra- and co-curricular activities found in many schools offer youth many opportunities which were not available to their predecessors. In addition to changes in the curriculum, numerous special services are offered by secondary schools of today. Health services, guidance and counseling services, and employment services are among the many special features which now characterize this great American institution. Thus the secondary school has been a changing institution. It has not kept pace with general social change, but it has changed and must change still more.

And Something More. It should never be concluded that secondary education in America is what it is today simply because of the great numbers of young people, many of whom are forced into schools by law. In many countries there are more children per unit of popu-

lation than are found in the United States, but they have no such per capita representation in school. Why all these young people in school for such long periods of time? Why all the differentiation in offerings, and why all the special services? Why all the noise about changing purposes and about modification of procedures? Here are some of the major answers to these questions.

1. For many centuries discerning people from many walks of life have recognized the principle of individual differences, and they have sought to focus education upon individual children so that it may meet their needs, interests, and purposes and so that it may be geared to their individual capacities to achieve.¹

2. Democracy as an emerging concept found its greatest opportunity for expression in the United States. Despite the presence of forces operating to the contrary, the Constitution of the United States emerged as a great symbol of man's regard for man. It laid down provisions which served to dignify the individual with respect to his rights and his duties as a citizen; it established government as the servant of man, and man as an entity of government at state, local, and national levels; and it made provision for flexibility in the operation of social processes and institutions to the end that informed people may from time to time modify procedures and practices in the interest of the general welfare. Furthermore, the Constitution recognizes and safeguards certain essential elements of democracy. These elements, or characteristics, of democracy have been translated into fundamental principles which when taken together express the nature of American democratic ideology. One of the best illustrations of an attempt to identify these principles is taken from Pittenger.² He believes that:

Democracy fundamentally respects the authority of truth rather than that of autocratic leaders or classes;

It accepts the principle of compromise in the provisional adjustment of controversies to secure pragmatic ends;

It believes in human equality as opposed to fixed differentiation of hereditary castes, and it keeps open the avenues of progress for each individual citizen;

¹ See Ben D. Wood and Ralph Haefer, *Measuring and Guiding Individual Growth*, Chap. I, pp. 3-32, Silver Burdett Company, New York, 1943.

² B. F. Pittenger, *Indoctrination for American Democracy*, pp. 42-43, The Macmillan Company, New York, 1941.

It places the rights and responsibilities of individuals above those of any institution, including the state;

It protects and aids individuals through proper provision for the general welfare;

It accepts the principles of popular sovereignty and civil liberty;

And it establishes the expansion and maintenance of human happiness as the criterion for judging the efficiency of social processes and institutions.

Citizens of this country long ago recognized that democracy could not survive in the presence of masses of uninformed or misinformed people. By reason of its very nature, democracy requires more of its citizens than does any other form of social organization. In addition, only a little reflection upon such matters as the increasing complexity of American life, the ever mounting presence of critical issues which stem from world problems and the role of the United States in international affairs, and the inevitable extension of government functions and services at all levels reveals that the responsibilities of citizenship mount almost daily. It is imperative, therefore, that young people in the secondary schools be given education and guidance that will make it possible for them to enjoy the good life while preserving and increasing the values inherent in the soundest principles of democracy. This is the great challenge to secondary education, and it is a prominent reason why schools should take upon themselves a role of service in keeping with the needs of the young people who attend them. It is a responsibility delegated to the schools by the people.

3. There has been a vast array of research in the application of psychology to education; in the development of instruments of measurement; in the biological, physiological, and sociological aspects of human growth and development; in the philosophy of education; and in the fields of content and methodology, to name only a few areas. By and large, research in education has had two main purposes: (a) to secure information about the individual being educated, and (b) to provide better ways and means of educating the individual. Hence the bases for selecting the offerings and the services by which young people may be guided into a fruitful citizenry. It seems, in fact, that there is a trend in secondary education which represents a desire to help youth achieve such worthy objectives as "the objectives of self realization, the objectives of

human relationships, the objectives of economic efficiency, the objectives of civic responsibility."³ If the secondary school is to contribute its full share to the attainment of these goals, it must be fashioned and conducted in accordance with certain unique purposes.

PURPOSES OF SECONDARY EDUCATION

Perhaps the most widely quoted purposes of secondary education are those announced by the Commission on the Reorganization of Secondary Education.⁴ After considerable study and deliberation, the Commission set forth seven purposes which were referred to as "Cardinal Principles of Secondary Education." They are (1) health, (2) command of fundamental processes, (3) worthy home membership, (4) vocation, (5) citizenship, (6) worthy use of leisure, and (7) ethical character.

In the same year that the Commission made its report, Inglis⁵ suggested three fundamental aims of secondary education. He listed them as (1) the social-civic aim, (2) the economic-vocational aim, and (3) the individualistic-vocational aim.

Incredible as it may seem, sometimes only a national emergency such as war will arouse people to a recognition of educational needs. Medical men, psychologists, and other specially trained people were called in to examine and provide services for soldiers of the First World War, as they were in the Second World War and later. Military personnel provided the subjects for study, and mental testing and other devices were used to discover all the information available about the young men. The refinement of instruments of measurement, plus evidence showing clearly that secondary education was not meeting the needs of individuals, proved a great stimulus for large-scale study of the schools' offerings and services during the 1920's. Perhaps the most significant characteristic of the forward movement of those years was the attention given to study of the

³ *The Purposes of Education in American Democracy*, p. 47, National Education Association, American Association of School Administrators, Educational Policies Commission, Washington, 1938.

⁴ *Cardinal Principles of Secondary Education*, U.S. Bureau of Education Bulletin 35, pp. 5-10, 1918.

⁵ Alexander Inglis, *Principles of Secondary Education*, p. 368, Houghton Mifflin Company, Boston, 1918.

nature of young people of secondary-school age and their relationships to society. This study made a difference in statements of purposes and functions of secondary education.

Some sixteen years after the Commission on the Reorganization of Secondary Education gave us the "Cardinal Principles of Secondary Education," Briggs* delegated ten special functions to secondary education. He presented and elaborated them in the following order: (1) integration, (2) satisfaction of needs, (3) revelation of the racial heritage, (4) exploration of interests, aptitudes, and capacities, (5) systematization and application of knowledge, (6) establishment and direction of interests, (7) guidance, (8) differentiation, (9) methods of teaching and learning, (10) retention and direction of pupils. A key statement is made by Briggs about each of these functions. Inherent in these statements are strong implications for valid purposes of secondary education. They are given here in the same order as the above list of functions. According to Briggs, the school should determine:

1. To continue by definite program, though in a diminishing degree, the integration of students. This should be on an increasingly intellectual level until the desired common knowledge, appreciations, ideals, attitudes, and practices are firmly fixed.

2. To satisfy the important and immediate and the probable future needs of the students in so far as adolescent maturity permits, guiding behavior of youth in the light of increasingly remote, but always clearly understood and appreciated, social and personal values.

3. To reveal higher activities of an increasingly specialized type in the major fields of the racial heritage of experience and culture, their significant values for social living, the problems in them of contemporary life, the privileges and duties of each person as an individual and as a member of social groups; to make these fields satisfying and desired by those naturally gifted for success in them, and to give information as to requirements for success in these fields and information as to where further training may be secured.

4. To explore higher and increasingly specialized interests, aptitudes, and capacities, looking toward the direction of students into avenues of study and work for which they have manifested peculiar fitness.

5. To systematize knowledge acquired previously or in some course, to show the significance both of this knowledge and especially of laws

* Thomas H. Briggs, *Secondary Education*, pp. 252-288, The Macmillan Company, New York, 1934.

and principles, with wider ranges of application than would otherwise be perceived.

6. To establish and develop in all major fields of knowledge, not merely a few protected subjects, interests which are numerous, varied, and as deep as possible, and to direct some of these by means of differentiated courses to ends most worth-while for each individual, the hope being that they will lead on to a continued education both in higher institutions and outside of any formal school.

7. To guide students, on the basis of results of revealing and exploratory courses and of personnel studies, as wisely as possible into advanced study or vocations in which they are most likely to be successful and happy.

8. To begin and gradually to increase differentiated education on the evidence of interests, aptitudes, and capacities demonstrated earlier.

9. To use in all courses, as largely as possible, methods that demand independent thought, involve elementary principles of research, and provide intelligent and somewhat self-directed practice, individual and co-operate, in the appropriate desirable activities of the educated person.

10. To retain each student until the law of diminishing return begins to operate or until he is ready for more independent study in a higher institution, and when it is manifested that he cannot or will not materially profit by further study of what can be offered to eliminate him promptly, as wisely as possible directing him into some other school or into work for which he seems most fit.

The over-all purpose of secondary education according to *Bossing*¹ may best be stated in his own words. He writes that "the function of secondary education may be assumed to be the guidance of the adolescent in the achievement of an intelligent and satisfying adjustment to his immediate environment." This statement implies an awareness of the nature of the cultural, social, political, and economic environment in which young people of today live. It also implies knowledge of individual students—their strengths and their weaknesses, their aims and ideals, their personal and social needs—thus bringing to light bases for reanalyzing the school's services in order to help young people adjust to their immediate environment.

Increased attention has been given in recent years to the needs of in-school youth. Chapter 1 of this book presents the needs of youth as young people see them. Listed below are "The Imperative Needs

¹ Nelson L. Bossing, *Progressive Methods of Teaching in Secondary Schools*, p. 28, Houghton Mifflin Company, Boston, 1942.

of Youth of Secondary-school Age"* as defined by adult authorities in secondary education.

1. All youth need to develop saleable skills and those understandings and attitudes that make the worker an intelligent and productive participant in economic life. To this end, most youth need supervised work experiences as well as education in the skills and knowledge of their occupations.

2. All youth need to develop and maintain good health and physical fitness.

3. All youth need to understand the rights and duties of the citizen of a democratic society, and to be diligent and competent in the performance of their obligations as members of the community and citizens of the state and nation.

4. All youth need to understand the significance of the family for the individual and society and the conditions conducive to successful family life.

5. All youth need to know how to purchase and use goods and services intelligently, understanding the values received by the consumer and the economic consequences of their acts.

6. All youth need to understand the methods of science, the influence of science on human life, and the main scientific facts concerning the nature of the world of man.

7. All youth need opportunities to develop their capacities to appreciate beauty in literature, art, music, and nature.

8. All youth need to be able to use their leisure time well and to budget it wisely, balancing activities that yield satisfactions to the individual with those that are socially useful.

9. All youth need to develop respect for other persons, to grow in their insight into ethical values and principles, and to be able to live and work cooperatively with others.

10. All youth need to grow in their ability to think rationally, to express their thoughts clearly, and to read and listen with understanding.

If these needs are to be met by the secondary school, they must first be translated into purposes. Purposes of secondary education would then become:

1. To provide opportunities in degree and in kind for young people of different ages, aptitudes, and abilities to secure accurate infor-

* "The Imperative Needs of Youth of Secondary-school Age," *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-school Principals*, 31(145):2, March, 1947.

mation about the work and the workers of the world, to have the benefits of counsel about their likelihood of success in different fields of work, and to receive guided work experiences whenever and wherever needed.

This purpose suggests that the school recognize both the internal and the external aspects of the principle of specialization. Internally, it capitalizes on the wide range of individual differences among students at various stages of their development while attending secondary school. Externally, specialization gives attention to the diversity of human experiences and activities outside the school. Stated in another way, specialization responds to the demands of society for special services on the one hand and to special interests, aptitudes, and abilities of pupils on the other. This means that young people in secondary school should be given work experiences that are designed to give them skills, attitudes, and work habits essential to reasonable success and that are in keeping with their abilities.

2. To provide studies and learning activities by which pupils may recognize the advantages of good health and the means by which good health and physical fitness may be developed and maintained.

This objective suggests an individual approach by the school as opposed to the practice of wholesale instruction, which includes standard sets of biological and physiological facts to be learned, games to be played, and admonishments to be heard and forgotten. Physiologically, boys and girls differ, and there are differences in individual needs among members of both sexes. And these differences, together with the various levels of maturation found among pupils in any secondary school, should be recognized when instruction and guidance in this area is outlined. Moreover, the criterion of social significance, which certainly implies concern for the mental health of each individual, should be duly considered in the selection and organization of teaching-learning materials and activities, and in the quality of guidance services to be provided youth who have problems in the area of health.

3. To provide information and experiences which will enable pupils to develop an understanding of the rights and duties of a citizen, and which will guarantee in so far as possible opportunities for

the development of skills essential to intelligent behavior as a citizen in a democracy.

This objective suggests realistic consideration by the school of the individual as a member of groups as well as of the activities of groups of people in situations involving human relationships. This objective will be achieved by providing learning experiences that are consonant with the activities of good citizens as individuals and as members of groups that perform democratic functions.

4. To provide for boys and girls information and guidance by which they may come to understand the full significance of the family to the individual and to society, and the conditions most conducive to successful home and family life.

One of the fundamental tenets of democracy is that the home is a basic social unit. This being true, it may be assumed that any combination of external forces which tend to weaken or to destroy wholesome family life may be considered forces in operation against democracy. Again, the school should come to grips with conditions which tend to frustrate people in their attempts to maintain harmonious relations in the home, conditions which have their origin in contemporary life as well as in individuals themselves. It is incumbent upon the secondary school, therefore, to furnish information and counsel needed by youth, who want very much to fulfill their desires to become successful homemakers.

5. To provide youth information and experiences designed to help them to understand the social and economic significance of being a producer and consumer of goods and services.

Producing and consuming goods and services are primarily individual concerns, but youth must be brought to understand that in their own best interests they must be able to strike a reasonable balance between their own production of goods and services and the amount of these they are able to consume. Furthermore, they must be led to understand that their own best interests will be protected and advanced in reasonable proportion to the extent to which the general welfare is made secure.

6. To provide information and other learning experiences designed to give pupils opportunities to increase their understanding of science and its effects upon the lives of people.

This purpose will be achieved by emphasizing not only the method of science, but the social, political, and economic aspects as well.

7. To provide for all youth opportunities to experience and to express the arts in ways that are both satisfying to them and beneficial to society.

This purpose suggests studies and activities which include language and dramatic arts, music, art in its various forms, crafts, design, creative writing, nature, and similar provisions for proper aesthetic and emotional development of all young people.

8. To provide for all pupils information about the desirability of many activities appropriate for leisure hours, and to give them experience and guidance in the development of skills in these activities.

This purpose should be accepted at its full value. It is just as important as any of the others. People have more and more leisure time at their disposal, and how this time is used has serious personal, social, and economic consequences. The school should therefore make every effort to help solve the leisure-time problems of its pupils, fully realizing that here, certainly, individual differences must be taken into account.

9. To provide an in-school environment based upon the highest ethical principles, respect for the personalities of each individual pupil and teacher, and cooperative endeavor.

This purpose suggests the issue of democracy versus autocracy. Let it suffice to say here that each day a pupil goes to school he should be impressed by the fact that all school personnel behave democratically. He thus will have an opportunity to cultivate democratic behavior, he will be allowed to practice it, and it will become accordingly more meaningful. A faculty of ethical people who respect human personality and work cooperatively with one another and with pupils will practically assure the achievement of this objective.

10. To provide studies and activities designed to help each child develop to the extent of his capacity the skills for acquiring information, the ability to communicate ideas, and the ability to think his way through problem-solving situations.

Nothing short of appropriate selection and use of content, methods, and activities which are geared to this purpose, with emphasis upon knowing and understanding individual pupils, will permit the achievement of this objective.

An almost endless list of purposes of secondary education could be presented. But it is necessary here only to point out, first, that there is general agreement on the purposes of secondary education; second, that in every set of purposes of secondary education the function of guidance is either specifically mentioned or strongly implied; and third, guidance is not conceived as a service to be set apart as an autonomous appendage to the already existing school program, but is rather accepted as an integral part of all the functions performed by the secondary school.

WHAT GUIDANCE IS ABOUT

It has just been shown that guidance is an acknowledged function of secondary education. Moreover, the majority of secondary schools in operation at this time make some conscious provision for guidance. Those which do not confess a liking for the idea and are "planning to start a guidance program." Some of the efforts now being made are somewhat dubious, while others are excellent. It is believed that such divergence in practice is an indication that the meaning of guidance is not clear to a great many secondary-school people.

In a discussion of its meaning, Jones * gives the following definition of guidance:

. . . Guidance involves personal help given someone; it is designed to assist a person to decide where he wants to go, what he wants to do, or how he can best accomplish his purpose; it assists him to solve problems that arise in life. It does not solve problems for the individual but helps him to solve them. The focus of guidance is the individual, not the problem; its purpose is to promote the growth of the individual in self-direction. This guidance may be given in groups or to individuals, but it always is designed to help individuals even though they be in a group.

This meaning was written by a competent person who has for years made guidance a special study. But he has no *prior jure* status

* Arthur J. Jones, *Principles of Guidance*, p. 61, McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., New York, 1945.

in spelling out its meaning. For example, Wrinkle and Gilchrist¹⁰ declare that:

Guidance . . . means to stimulate and help the student to set up worth-while, achievable purposes and to develop abilities which will make it possible for him to achieve his purposes. The essential elements . . . are (1) the setting up of purposes, (2) the provision of experiences, (3) the development of abilities, and (4) the achievement of purposes Teaching without intelligent guidance cannot be good teaching, and guidance without good teaching is incomplete. Teaching and guidance are inseparable.

Still another noteworthy statement of what guidance is about is that given by Spears.¹¹ He writes with authority and conviction in this fashion:

A really good guidance or personnel program in a school depends not so much upon the tests and the techniques employed, but rather upon a whole-staff consciousness of, and participation in, effective personnel work. The program is to be judged by neither the thickness of the cumulative record folder nor the number of standardized test scores therein. None of these trappings—not even a staff of trained counselors—can make up for the absence of a soft spot in the heart of the classroom teacher for her pupils as individuals, all different, all important. *This close feeling of the teacher for individual pupils is the key-stone of school guidance.* If it isn't there, the administration might as well save its investment in all the rest.

Spears states further that "an effective guidance program helps a youth to see clearly four things: (1) Where he has been; (2) Where he is now; (3) Where he is going; and (4) What he has with which to get there."¹²

Let us turn again to those whose specialty is guidance for its meaning. Hamrin and Erickson¹³ believe that:

Guidance in the secondary school refers to that aspect of the educational program which is concerned especially with helping the pupil to

¹⁰ W. L. Wrinkle and R. S. Gilchrist, *Secondary Education for American Democracy*, p. 334, Rinehart & Company, Inc., New York, 1942.

¹¹ Harold Spears, *The High School for Today*, p. 184, American Book Company, New York, 1950.

¹² *Ibid.*, p. 185.

¹³ Shurley A. Hamrin and Clifford E. Erickson, *Guidance in the Secondary School*, pp. 1-2, Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., New York, 1939.

become adjusted to his present situation and to plan his future in line with his interests, abilities, and social needs Guidance or personnel work represents an organized effort on the part of the school, equipped with both a knowledge of the pupil and information as to opportunities of an educational, a social, and a vocational character, to help the individual pupil to become adjusted to his present situation in such a way as to provide the greatest development for him and to aid him in planning for his future

Elsewhere Hamrin states the same meaning of guidance in another way: "Guidance is the individualized, the humanized aspect of education. It is the attempt to help the individual to be well adjusted and to make intelligent plans for his future."¹⁴

One more author, Davis,¹⁵ should be called upon to give his understanding of the meaning of guidance. Others could be added, but this one merits special consideration.

How does guidance differ from teaching, if at all? It is the opinion of the author of this book that (1) guidance is merely individualized education—a service which endeavors to adapt the curriculum to the needs, abilities and interests of the individual pupil as he develops as a member of the social group. The curriculum, as conceived here, really consists of all the activities in which a pupil engages in his school program. (2) Guidance includes the diagnosis of a pupil's difficulties and cooperation between teacher and pupil in their correction. It involves long-range planning, direction of pupils beyond secondary school, and articulation between this school and higher education or life. Finally it implies that the pupil will be the concern of the secondary school until he has become well-adjusted in higher education or industry. (3) Guidance is a service which should be involved in any teaching situation. When education shall have become intelligently conceived, then guidance as such will be forgotten, its functions having been absorbed into the total educational process.

Careful consideration of the meaning of guidance as described in preceding paragraphs permits the following summarization, presented in the form of key ideas.

1. Guidance is a *personal* service.

¹⁴ Shirley A. Hamrin, *Guidance Talks to Teachers*, pp. 12-13, McKnight & McKnight, Bloomington, Ill., 1947.

¹⁵ Frank G. Davis, *Guidance Manual for Principals*, p. 6, McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., New York, 1949.

2. It is the full, responsible development of the individual pupil that counts.
3. The inseparability of guidance and education is acknowledged.
4. The teacher is a guidance worker.
5. Guidance is continuous.

Everyone should have the privilege of defining his terms and of revising his own definition from time to time. It is often very difficult, however, to define such a term as guidance. For guidance is more than just a word; it is a big idea, composed of many ideas and concepts, replete with purpose and form. In the context of the educator (meaning anyone who dares to define guidance with the expectation of having that definition read by fellow teachers), the definition of guidance calls forth whatever knowledge and therefore whatever system of values one has concerning education. The task of defining the term is not easy. Even so, the following definition is given with confidence—confidence that is somewhat dual in character. First, just as learning or education cannot be precisely defined, it is impossible to give guidance a definition that is perfect and forever satisfactory. Second, the authors are confident, and hopeful, that the definition about to be given will cause others to devote enough thought to guidance to give it even greater meaning. All that is contained in this book is presented with the conviction that *guidance is a personalized service given an individual, upon his request or at his will, which is especially fashioned to help him clarify, secure information about, and resolve his difficulties, be they educational, personal and social, or vocational in character.*

Implicit in this statement is the major purpose of guidance. It may be stated thus: *to provide for each pupil guidance and instructional services which are planned and implemented in accordance with his powers to develop personally, socially, educationally, and vocationally.* This does not suggest soft pedagogy. Neither does it suggest a hard-boiled, impersonal, learn-this-and-do-that-or-else approach. On the contrary, the achievement of this purpose demands that principals, teachers, and special guidance workers understand each pupil and the circumstances of life in which he lives and is likely to live, so that they, in turn, may give him instruction and guidance which are scientifically fit for him personally. If the approach is sincere and sympathetic, the pupil will then see the relationships between what goes on in school, his own aims in life, and

his likelihood of achieving his goals and will be inspired to still greater effort.

AREAS OF GUIDANCE

Guidance services are usually designed for application in three large areas of life. These areas are conveniently identified as educational, vocational, and personal and social. They are not discrete areas. They are intimately related—inseparable, in fact. They are far more intimately related than some guidance practices seem to indicate. No matter what the point of emphasis may be in a given situation at a given time, there must be no restrictions upon resources, no sanctity of "area," no attitudes to suggest that "This area is posted. Keep out!" For example, in a certain school where emphasis is placed upon vocational guidance the vocational counselor works intimately with all other school personnel on matters of guidance, curriculum, evaluation, testing and measuring, supervision, and all other phases of a school that is a going concern. Upon being questioned about his work, the counselor very quickly pointed out that it is impossible to guide pupils properly without knowing everything possible about their home and family backgrounds, their health records since early childhood, their progress through school since the beginning, their work accomplishments outside the school, their personal and social habits, their aptitudes, their capacities, their needs in a wide range of fields, their purposes, and so on. He also hastened to add that curriculum adjustments across the board and improved methods of teaching are of prime importance to the vocational counselor.

By way of contrast, in another school which emphasizes so-called "vocational guidance" the vocational counselor remains apart. He does not "fool around with the academicians," meaning other teachers in the school. He works with the "boys" downtown and with the "kids" who are enrolled in vocational courses. He shows no interest in other phases of school life. He keeps his own inadequate system of records without reference to pupils' cumulative records which are kept up to date in the principal's office. He has never consulted these records. Still, he defensively states that "the vocational department would amount to something in this school if they would quit making it a dumping ground."

Of the three areas of guidance just named, vocational guidance has enjoyed the greatest emphasis in the past. This is perhaps one of the chief reasons why vocational guidance has fallen short of its objectives in many instances. In more recent years, however, increased attention has been given to educational guidance and to guidance as it relates to the personal and social adjustment of young people, and the latter has rapidly come into prominence as an obligation of the secondary school. As may well have been concluded already, there should be no attempt to "parcel out" guidance in separate, discrete packages. There is still room for guidance workers who have areas of specialization, but the need for cooperative, coordinate effort which ultimately includes all professional personnel should be stressed. By this approach the school may, indeed, become an integrating agent.

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CHAPTER 10 *Organizing the School for Guidance*

The success of any school function such as guidance depends in large measure upon organization, administration, and supervision. *Organization* involves getting the right people into proper places at appropriate times, with sufficient materials with which to work effectively.

Administration involves keeping controls and lines of communication clear and flexible so that the right people continue to have less and less difficulty in becoming situated in areas where their efforts will be most fruitful, as well as assuring proper distribution of resource materials to be used at given times and in given places.

Supervision is that phase of educational administration which has as its greatest concern providing professional leadership in the attainment of educational objectives. It seeks to draw out the best qualities of each personality among faculty and pupils alike, and it stimulates and assists each person to increase his own powers to the maximum. It seeks to establish unity of purpose and action among school personnel to the end that the satisfactory achievement of agreed-upon objectives is practically assured, and it inspires people constantly to rise to still greater heights.

Supervision aids in the collection, the assimilation, and the interpretation of pertinent data and information, and it assists each individual to become increasingly proficient in the use of these. It aims toward effecting needed changes in the nature of the school's services to pupils, in curriculum content and organization, and in methods, by helping each professional worker understand basic reasons for changes and by aiding each person in the mastery of new techniques which he must possess if desirable changes are to be effected, thus

preserving his individual integrity. Such responsibilities are primarily those of the secondary-school principal.

THE SECONDARY-SCHOOL PRINCIPAL A KEY OFFICIAL

Whether one is principal of the only secondary school in a district or one of several secondary-school principals in a city school system, he is a key official upon whose leadership the success of the school's program largely depends. He is the person to whom the board of education, the superintendent of schools, teachers, pupils, and parents look for educational leadership as it involves the unit over which he presides. By virtue of the position he holds, the principal is charged with the responsibilities briefly outlined in preceding paragraphs, and he is usually given the necessary freedom of operation in order that he may meet his obligations.

In many respects, the principal occupies a more strategic position than the superintendent of schools. Not only does he share in policy making, it is he who interprets policies, and it is largely through his leadership and by his efforts that policies affect practice in desired ways. He has a unique advantage in that he knows intimately the members of his professional staff. He works with them and for them month by month and year by year. He knows them as professional workers, and he knows them as individuals. If he is a principal in a city school system, he knows central-office personnel—supervisors, research workers, and special guidance functionaries—and he knows who among them is best able to serve the needs of those directly under his supervision. He knows who among them is best able to assist him personally in a supplementary, a complementary, and a professional manner. He also knows the pupils who attend his school, and he knows many of the parents of these young people—who they are, what they do, their relative incomes, their attitudes, their concerns, their convictions. Furthermore, the principal is intimately acquainted with the community. He sees it from the standpoint of its relationship to the school; he views it as a large packet of readily available source material which can be used by teachers and pupils to enrich and to make more meaningful all phases of their work. Indeed, the principal's position is so strategic that most superintendents are quick to recognize that the success of the program of secondary education largely depends upon him.

It is fair to say, also, that if the principal is to provide leadership in effecting the dynamics of guidance and instruction in his school, he must himself have a deep conviction that:

There are no misfit children. There are misfit courses of study, misfit textbooks, and misfit teachers. But there are no misfit children. The child is what education is for. One might as well say that a man does not fit his clothes as to say that the child does not fit the school. On high authority we have it that the law is made for man, not man for the law. It is one of the tragedies of human institutions that they tend to become formal and mechanical, that they tend to gather about them people who have vested interest in their perpetuity in unchanging form. The strange and inconsequential reasons are urged in behalf of this perpetuity of form, and minds are closed to the values of alternative procedures. Productive energies are diverted from the evaluation of new ideas to the prolongation of ideas which were once new but which have ceased to be vital.¹

The principal should not only believe this statement, but he should also understand that his secondary school is susceptible to the tragedies named therein.

The principal must realize that guidance is only one of the major functions of secondary education and that, as was shown in Chapter 9, guidance is (1) a personal service for the benefit of all pupils, (2) responsible for the fullest possible development of each individual child, (3) part and parcel of, and inseparable from, the larger program of teaching and learning, (4) the responsibility of every member of the professional staff of the school, and (5) a continuous service to pupils. The principal must also see the secondary school and its several functions in proper relationship to one another and to the total education of young people.

Generally speaking, secondary-school principals and teachers look upon guidance as a relatively new function, but a good idea nonetheless. It is but natural, therefore, that current attempts to offer guidance reflect widely divergent concepts and, consequently, widely differing practices, some good and some bad. It behooves the principal, then, to devote himself seriously to an examination of modern concepts of guidance. This should give him more sub-

¹ R. B. Buckingham, "Disciplinary Values in Individualized Instruction," *The Educational Record*, Supplement 11, p. 74, January, 1938, American Council on Education, Washington.

stantial bases for planning his own leadership activities which are directed toward improved guidance in his school.

MODERN CONCEPTS OF GUIDANCE

Leonard ² supports the view that guidance has both a general and a specialized function:

Guidance has a specialized and a generalized function to perform. It relates to the curriculum in that it directs youth into certain areas where their needs may be met. It reaches beyond the school into the home and the community in its interest in personal and social adjustment. It is general to the extent that all those who direct the learning of youth should understand them thoroughly and should be charged with advising them in terms of their needs rather than in terms of the interests of the teacher

Guidance also requires the services of specialists. Many boys and girls become maladjusted or offer the average teacher problems which he is not competent to analyze or treat. Teachers will frequently require special assistance with guidance problems, and pupils who need case study will profit from the counsel of highly trained guidance workers.

Explicitly or implicitly, Leonard brings into view five concepts of guidance. First, as an instrument of guidance, the curriculum must be developed in terms of the needs of youth for whom it is designed, and it is enriched and vitalized by drawing upon resources found in the home and in the community; second, the major objective of guidance is personal and social adjustment of young people; third, all people who direct the learning activities of boys and girls are guidance workers; fourth, counsel must be given in terms of the interests and needs of youth rather than in terms of the interests of the counselor; and fifth, guidance for the seriously maladjusted requires the services of specialists.

Basic concepts of guidance as understood by Hamrin and Erickson ³ are as follows:

1. Human values are of the greatest importance.
2. Guidance is interested in the "whole child."

² J. Paul Leonard, *Developing the Secondary School Curriculum*, pp. 550-551, Rinehart & Company, Inc., New York, 1946.

³ S. A. Hamrin and C. E. Erickson, *Guidance in the Secondary School*, p. 17, Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., New York, 1933.

3. The situation including the home, school, church, and community must always be considered.
4. Frequently guidance workers should attempt to change the situation rather than attempt to fit the individual into his present circumstances.
5. Guidance or personnel work must be provided for all children and not just for problem children or for a select few.
6. Guidance is a continuous process.
7. Guidance must be a unitary function since all aspects of a person's development are interrelated.
8. Guidance is not prescriptive but rather works toward the goal of self-direction.
9. All teachers must be guidance workers.
10. There should be a definite plan to care for the guidance function in every school.

Significantly, there is general agreement among students in the field that the teacher is indispensable to guidance. Teaching at its best is a personal service based upon the teacher's thorough knowledge of each pupil as an individual personality, and ideally there is a studied attempt on the part of the teacher to systematize information and to provide learning experiences and counsel which are consistent with the pupil's needs. This includes his needs in the larger area of personal and social adjustment. The very nature of the school is such that, except for a pupil's contemporaries, the teacher is probably the most significant part of his in-school curriculum. As Davis⁴ points out:

Modern trends in guidance point toward the importance of the teacher as a guidance worker. A number of circumstances are influential in this connection:

1. Most school districts feel they cannot afford a full-time specialized guidance worker.
2. Many students of the problem believe that, even if such an office can be provided, the teachers may off all responsibility for pupil guidance.
3. Guidance is an ongoing process and should take place when and where the need arises.
4. The teacher, who has opportunity to meet the pupil under varied conditions and circumstances, is believed by many to be able to deal more understandingly with pupils' problems.

⁴ Frank G. Davis, *Guidance Manual for Principals*, p. 1, McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., New York, 1949.

5. Most school leaders believe that the teacher who approaches her problems from the standpoint of the welfare of each individual pupil is likely to be the more effective teacher.

Sufficient evidence has been presented to show rather conclusively that pupil adjustment personally and socially (which means educationally, vocationally, ethically, morally, and so on) is the goal of guidance and of education as well. It also seems reasonable to conclude that to give each child the full benefit of professional effort in order to bring about such adjustment requires that the entire school be geared to the individual needs of pupils to the degree that individualized instruction, advisement, and counsel become real in practice. To do anything less is to continue to strive for conformity among human beings and to continue an attitude which stresses teacher interest as the criterion of most worth. Unfortunately, in such circumstances a pupil is often branded a misfit if he fails to conform in pleasing fashion. Such practice also results too often in the invalid and unfortunate conclusion that the child who conforms in the most agreeable manner is the well-adjusted child. But conformity and adjustment are not to be confused in the minds of principals, teachers, and others. After all, each of us may find himself in a position now and then where, for the time being, it seems wise to cooperate with what appears to be an inevitable circumstance. And it should always be remembered that youth and adults alike are generally able to conceal their inner feelings very cleverly when it is to their advantage to do so.

Let us pursue further this concept of guidance as a whole-school affair, with teachers playing a leading role. A practical realization of this concept involves meeting the critical problem which is so well stated by Wood and Haefner.* In their book, *Measuring and Guiding Individual Growth*, Dr. French, a physician, presses Mr. Gordon, a school principal, with questions having to do with the school curriculum in relation to pupil adjustment. Here is the reply:

"Yes," answered Mr. Gordon, "I'm sure that an important, perhaps the most important, aspect of future guidance will be to find appropriate school activities for young people who possess wide ranges of interests, needs, and abilities."

* Ben D. Wood and Ralph Haefner, *Measuring and Guiding Individual Growth*, p. 434, Silver Burdett Company, New York, 1943.

Wood and Haefner, whose thesis is individualized education, liken the process of attaining it to a guidance structure, with Miss Keen speaking these lines: *

"First, I am convinced that we need sympathetic, trained, open-minded, patient teachers who believe that individuals constitute the most important resource of society and that the primary responsibility of a school and a community is to help those individuals to attain all-around growth—physical, mental, emotional, social, and spiritual.

"The second corner of the guidance building . . . is, obviously, a means of finding individuals. Those means are fact-finding devices of various types: tests, observations, work accomplished, special achievements—literary, social, citizenship, dramatic, athletic.

"A third corner of this building . . . is systematic recording and preservation of data covering the individual's entire school career For this purpose cumulative record forms are essential. Even more important is constant review, analysis, and study of the records of individual pupils. To accomplish this basic desideratum of the guidance program, teachers need careful, systematic introduction to records, and to their value and interpretation.

"There's a fourth corner to this guidance structure . . . and it is probably the most difficult of all to achieve. It consists of adjusting school procedures and activities to the facts produced by measurement and accumulated data. It involves diversified curricula, individualized methods, modified grading systems, improved teaching in special subjects, . . . more realistic vocational guidance at junior and senior high-school levels, closer parent-teacher relations, and broader community understanding of individual learning problems."

It now appears possible to identify major concepts of guidance which seem to be most acceptable and which may be summarized in the following manner:

1. *Guidance is inclusive.* It is based upon the assumption that all pupils need guidance.

2. *Guidance is flexible.* Its method changes with individual and group needs for guidance.

3. *It is democratic.* Guidance cannot be imposed upon anyone with assurance that it will be effective.

4. *Guidance is scientific.* It can be effective only to the degree that pertinent, scientifically gathered information and data are utilized to help pupils in the solution of their problems.

* *Ibid.*, pp. 514-515.

5. *It is preventive.* Guidance aims to prevent maladjustment. To be sure, maladjustment is treated; but to delay the application of guidance until the child is obviously out of harmony with himself and with his group would be to defeat its very purpose.

6. *It is continuous.* Guidance is a service to children which begins when they enter school and ends when they have found their places in their chosen fields after leaving school.

7. *Guidance is an integral part of the total program of education.* Guidance is a whole-school enterprise, and it functions best when principal, special guidance workers, teachers, and pupils accept and work to achieve essentially the same major goals.

THE GUIDANCE SPECIALIST

Nothing that has been said thus far should be interpreted as meaning that the specialist in guidance is not needed. If it is at all possible, his services should be provided on a full- or part-time basis. The person whose special work in the secondary school is that of guidance has unique contributions to make. His effectiveness, however, depends largely upon what he does and the attitudes he reveals. It is suggested accordingly that the special guidance worker's contributions are likely to be most satisfactory when he observes the following practices:

1. He works to the end that all school personnel accept guidance as a function of secondary education. In doing so he works with his colleagues who are less specialized than he in such a way that they continuously broaden and deepen their concepts of guidance, find their places in the guidance program, and become stronger in the roles for which they are best adapted. The special guidance worker strives to leave the impression that guidance is a whole-school affair, and in no circumstance does he imply that guidance is nobody's business but his own.

2. He accepts each teacher, teacher-counselor, supervisor, and administrator professionally, personally, emotionally, and socially. He studies each member of the professional staff as assiduously, as continuously, as he emphasizes the need for studying pupils. He is acutely aware that teachers are especially important people. He has no illusions about the great influence of teachers upon the success of guidance. He therefore places himself at their service; he serves

them well because he has studied them, he knows them, he is confident of the contributions they can make, and he coordinates his own activities with those of others to whom teachers look for leadership.

3. He oversees the collection of information and data of all forms needed to serve as bases for guidance in the school, and he assists his colleagues in the organization, treatment, interpretation, and use of these. The special guidance worker makes certain that this process does not appear to his coworkers as an elaborate hocus-pocus of statistical procedure. He works to create a professional climate that is devoid of mystery, doubt, and fear by anticipating and obviating the possibility of their presence.

4. He assists his coworkers in finding and using community resources for guidance purposes.

5. He locates and brings to the attention of his coworkers reports of research and other appropriate reference materials. When necessary, he simplifies the more technical materials in order that their meanings may be better understood and their implications more clearly seen.

6. He assists teacher-counselors in such ways that they become increasingly able in the processes of individual and group counseling.

7. He works with teachers and with teacher-counselors in such ways that they become increasingly able to solve their own pupil-personnel problems. The special guidance worker always supplements and complements in teamwise fashion the work of these people. He never relieves them by solving their problems for them. This does not mean that the special guidance worker does no counseling. It means, rather, that he takes cases that call for specialization beyond that which teacher-counselors possess. Even so, the special guidance worker sees to it that his colleagues are informed about his findings, his procedures, and the suggestions he makes to his counselees in order that they may at once enlarge their own concepts and techniques of guidance and assist in creating the conditions under which pupils are most likely to make desirable adjustments.

It is here that the specialist in guidance and counseling can most effectively demonstrate the need for careful study, evaluation, and use of every item of information about a pupil that helps to explain his behavior, particularly as it relates to the adolescent peer culture

of which he is a part.⁷ It is also in this connection that the special guidance functionary can demonstrate the need for continuous conceptualization which, as Rothney and Roens⁸ point out, demands the following steps:

Assembling of information. This step requires the collection of data by all possible methods and from any reasonable source. Note that it allows for the use of both subjective and objective data.

Organizing the data. This step comprises the process of collecting and summarizing data. It is a continuous process during the study of a person, and it should result in highlighting his individuality.

Stating the problems. From the results of the first two procedures and counseling problems are outlined.

Planning the procedures. In this step alternative lines of action are listed, and the probable results of each are considered.

Treatment. The actions that seem most appropriate are chosen and activity is begun by counselor and counsee.

Follow-up. The follow-up procedure may require rediagnosis, collection of more data, and restatement of conceptualizations. In many cases it may require only that performance be recorded and arrangements made for further follow-up at a later period.

The special guidance worker should heed the warning not to permit himself to become a disciplinarian. Once this happens he is started on a useless road, a road that does not permit a U-turn once it is traveled only a few steps. To be sure, the special guidance functionary is concerned with pupils who are caught up and branded as disciplinary cases, but his chief contribution is that of bringing to light information and data and suggested procedures for use by proper persons. He thereby aids in identifying the causes of unsatisfactory behavior and in devising methods by which pupils may make adjustments that are satisfying.

8. The special guidance counselor works with the faculty on curriculum development and in the improvement of instruction. The specialist realizes that guidance services cannot be effective unless the school curriculum and instructional procedures are geared to the needs, capacities, and interests of pupils. He there-

⁷ See *Adolescence*, Forty-third Yearbook, National Society for the Study of Education, Part I, Chap. 12, University of Chicago Press, Chicago, 1944.

⁸ John W. M. Rothney and Bert A. Roens, *Counseling the Individual Student*, p. 62, William Sloane Associates, New York, 1949.

fore works to the end that education and guidance become as nearly one as possible.

The last-named way by which the specialist in guidance can be helpful is of great importance. His other qualities, essential as they are, are of relatively minor importance unless he has the ability to help teachers effect curriculum changes that are consistent with the needs of pupils. Guidance does not occur in a vacuum, nor does it occur as a completely separate activity. The whole-school concept must be rooted in the thinking of, and must serve as a basis for action by, all professional personnel if guidance is to be effective. Principals should therefore recognize the futility of efforts to provide adequate guidance services for pupils by the oft-practiced procedure of placing new or already employed people, no matter how competent they may be, into positions which designate them as special guidance workers, and then permit school to go on as usual.

THE PRINCIPAL TAKES HIS BEARINGS

The principal must take his bearings and from time to time reckon his position, if he is to give the leadership expected of him in the matter of providing adequate guidance for pupils. There are, of course, certain variables with which he must reckon, and an understanding of these variables is essential to the establishment of a course of action and serves to keep him steering the right course. Perhaps the most important of these variables are faculty, pupils, and community. Each of these is indispensable to guidance. Taken together they are the groups with which the principal must work in fashioning the guidance services required of the school.

Variables among the Faculty. Individual members of any faculty differ one from another in a variety of ways. Each has a different home and community background; each differs from the others with respect to education and work experiences, professional and otherwise; and each differs from the others in temperament and in attitudes toward almost every phase of human activity. There are differences in mental powers and in aptitudes among faculty members, and there are consequently differences in abilities to do certain things. There are also fundamental differences in beliefs about what the school ought to do, and more pronounced differences in beliefs

about ways of accomplishing the school's purposes. Indeed, the list of differences among members of a school faculty could be extended *ad infinitum*. For this reason every professional worker's personality is unique. And the uniqueness of individual personalities must be recognized by the principal if he is to utilize the principle of individual differences (and he certainly should) in the performance of his task as a leader.

The secondary-school principal should, therefore, raise and honestly answer such questions as the following:

1. Am I familiar enough with the preparation, experience, and personality of each member of the faculty to know his strengths and his weaknesses as a professional worker in the school, and as a representative of the school to the community?

2. Do I know enough about each member of the faculty to anticipate his receptivity of a new idea?

3. To what extent does teamwise effort characterize the faculty, individual by individual?

4. Am I aware of the extent to which each member of the faculty seeks to improve his performance professionally, and am I familiar with the techniques he employs in doing so?

5. To what extent does the faculty, individual by individual, admit the child as the focal point of all educational effort?

6. To what extent are there in evidence among individual members of the faculty an understanding of the basic concepts of guidance, a knowledge of the problems that worry youth most, and attempts to help youth solve their problems?

7. Am I familiar with projects undertaken in the past by individual members of the faculty and by the faculty as a whole and with reasons for the success or the failure of these projects?

8. Am I aware of the impact of the success or failure of a project, or projects, upon the faculty as a whole and upon individual members of the faculty?

9. Do I know the extent to which each member of the faculty is guided in all phases of his work by a tenable philosophy of education?

10. Do I know the present status of pupil-teacher relations, faculty member by faculty member? Do I know basically why these relations obtain?

11. Have there been in the past, and are there now "on the book" for consideration, a number of ideas and suggestions by members of the faculty for improving the school's services to pupils and to the community?

12. Am I familiar with the extent to which members of the faculty utilize the records of each pupil; and am I aware of the extent to which each member of the faculty attempts to secure, assimilate, and interpret new information and data about each pupil?

Objective, impersonal answers to these twelve questions will give the principal an understanding of the professional resources at his disposal and will provide substantial bases for administrative and supervisory leadership.

There Are Wide Differences among Pupils. Pupils in secondary school differ in a host of ways. Indeed, there is such a plethora of information about youth, scientifically derived, that it appears almost trite to remind school people that pupils differ widely one from another and that these differences have important implications for every phase of school work, particularly guidance. Even the most casual observer recognizes, for example, that there is a considerable range in ages of boys and girls in secondary school; that physiologically and psychologically they differ enormously; that they differ emotionally, morally, and ethically; that each child's personality is different, unique; that there are differences in intellectual powers, aptitudes, and abilities; that young people respond differently to the same treatment; that there are differences in their backgrounds, their aspirations, their aims in life; and that the individual may be different in many particulars from what he was six months ago or a year ago, and that he will in all likelihood be different a year hence from what he is today.

To be sure, no child is totally different from all other children. Youth share many characteristics and needs. Consequently it is possible for educators to determine fairly accurately the basic needs of all youth, such as those described in preceding pages of this book. But this is not enough. Even if secondary schools shaped their services to meet satisfactorily the common needs of pupils, and there is little evidence to show that they have, they would still be obligated to provide instruction, guidance, and other services especially designed to meet other and individual needs of pupils. Members of the teaching profession should therefore hasten to dedicate themselves

to the discovery and the development of individuality in pupils. Valuable help can be found in this and other sources of information about pupils' needs. But in the last analysis, school faculties must identify the needs of *their* pupils if each youth is to have opportunities to develop personally to the extent of his capabilities.

It is now time for the principal to look at the second set of variables, the pupils, with such questions in mind as:

1. Do we have in our school an adequate testing program by which we get needed facts about each pupil?

2. Do we have a system of cumulative records which gives us a complete story of each pupil from the time he entered school to the present?

3. Are teachers adept at getting and studying new facts about each pupil?

4. To what extent are we able to identify the problems about which each pupil worries most—problems in social adjustment, family relations, the use of time, planning for the future, personality development, jobs and money, health, and others?

5. To what extent are we making use of the vast amount of valuable information possessed by pupils for our own professional growth in service and for assistance in planning instructional, guidance, and administrative services?

6. To what extent have we made curriculum and guidance adjustments to individual needs of pupils?

Having taken his bearings with respect to pupils, the principal begins to see his task unfold. But there is a third consideration, the community.

The Community, Vital and Variable. Children come from the community and they return to its midst after each day at school. Youth live and work and play in the community for the most part. They go to church, to the movies, to the museum, to the public library, to the dance halls, to the park—they go everywhere in the community. In the pursuance of their varied interests, boys and girls get information, straight and otherwise, from the community; they live as fully as they believe their circumstances and their ideals permit; they sometimes run counter to, but for the most part they reflect, the mores of the community. Because of their community associations and activities, by the time young people reach secondary school they possess a great deal of information about people and

institutions. They have information about, and attitudes toward, labor and management, religion, government, race relations, politics, and a host of other things, including the school. Some of their information is sketchy, but much of it is rather complete; a great deal of it needs to be assimilated and enlarged upon. What is more, youth bring their attitudes and information to school with them, thus presenting the school with a fine cross-sectional representation of the larger community. The school is filled with community life, and it should be fully represented in community life and in the lives of young people in particular.

The school is a community enterprise. It is largely supported and controlled by the community. Properly understood and utilized, the community affords much in the nature of support besides money. Most communities are rich in resources which, when identified and classified, studied and utilized, are frequently more valuable to teachers than books, periodicals, monographs, and other printed materials.* Human resources, resources that are institutional in nature, and the natural environment of the community offer many opportunities by which school people may supplement and strengthen their own efforts if they will use these widely varying resources wisely. But a Cook's tour around the community will not reveal its resources. It must be studied continuously or it will always remain strange.

The principal should take the lead in exploring all possibilities for the use of community resources by the school. But first he needs to know what is already being done, and what information is needed, before wider uses of community resources can be expected. The principal should, therefore, raise questions of the following types about school use of community resources:

1. Do we, the faculty, understand the true nature of this community—its history, its economy, its social stresses, its policies over the years, its moral and religious concerns, its cultural aspects?
2. Are we familiar with the community's long-time disposition toward education, health, and other general welfare agencies?
3. Do we know, and do we keep up-to-date information about, individual people from the various worth-while walks of life in the

* Wilson Little, "Using Community Resources," in T. M. Stinnett (ed.), *The Teaching Profession Grows in Service*, pp. 133-137, National Education Association, Washington, 1949.

community, and do we make full use of these people for our own professional growth in service and for the enrichment and strengthening of our in-school program of education and guidance?

4. Do we make the fullest possible use of institutions, businesses, and organized groups in our community?

5. Have we studied carefully the physical environment of our community with the view of determining its uses as a resource for faculty and for pupils?

A quiet, friendly, systematic, continuous, purposeful study of the community is certain to yield satisfactory returns. It will enrich the lives of members of the faculty; it will open new vistas to them with respect to the school's place in community life; it will help them better to understand individual pupils they meet in school each day; it will make for better school-community relations; and it will serve to make guidance and instruction far more realistic, far more effective.

ORGANIZATION: A DEVICE FOR SERVICE

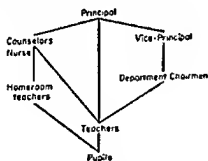
Organization is necessary, as was pointed out at the beginning of this chapter, but there is nothing sacred about it. The foregoing suggestions have been made to give the secondary-school principal ways of thinking about his role as a leader in order that he may have sound bases upon which to plan a program of action. The get-the-school-organized-and-let-it-operate concept is to be frowned upon. For this reason the principal should seriously contemplate his functions as educational leader in his school. For this reason also he should frankly question himself about his own concepts of guidance, his knowledge of individual members of his faculty, his own understanding of the principle of individual differences among pupils, his beliefs about school-community relations, and his thoughts concerning what the nature of the whole-school program ought to be. In other words, organization should be fashioned to serve the best interests of faculty and pupils, and not to force these people to fit into a convenient scheme which is designed to meet the criterion of administrative ease. Cut the suit to fit the person. It is better that way.

But let us not stop here. It would be convenient, and easy, to draw some organization charts for guidance in small, middle-sized, and

large secondary schools. Such charts are numerous and fairly standard—and that is just the point. Standardization of organization, except to a limited degree, is tantamount to cutting the person to fit the suit. The principal should be careful about adopting a plan of organization simply because it looks well on paper and because other schools draw essentially the same charts to describe their organizations. This is done a great deal, to be sure, but it is feared that as often as not this procedure is little better than subscription to a policy of consensus of error. Organization charts at best can reveal only limited information about the inner workings of schools. Let us, then, look for something else before we make decision on this important matter. An examination of practices in schools that are currently operating should be helpful.

School A. School A is a senior high school. There are 350 pupils and 18 faculty members. The principal, whom we shall call Mr. Orland, has held his present position five years. The faculty of School A has an average tenure of eight years.

When the authors visited School A, Mr. Orland was asked how the school was organized for guidance purposes. Note the accompanying organization chart for School A.



By raising certain questions, information about the duties of personnel was brought to light. For example, the following:

1. Most of the vice-principal's "free time" (he teaches three periods each day) is occupied with handling discipline cases, checking attendance, checking eligibility of students who participate in interschool contests, averaging grades, selling tickets, leading Red Cross drives and other campaigns in the school, clearing the calendar

for school activities, supervising school activities, and reviewing final arrangements for proper conduct of school athletic contests.

2. Three teachers in School A are designated as counselors. Each is relieved from one class a day to perform his duties as a special guidance worker. None of the counselors has made guidance a special study. One of the three counselors has the master's degree in English, a second holds the master's degree in history, and the third, a gentleman, majored in educational administration for the master's degree. The man hopes soon to be a principal, and the ladies (by their own admission) doubt that they are accomplishing as much as they would be if they were teaching full time. Each teacher-counselor receives an extra \$75 a year for his duties as a counselor. Aside from the fact that they lead pupils into certain course patterns, their guidance functions are limited to help with discipline problems and general assistance of the principal and the vice-principal with emergencies that arise.

3. The nurse makes routine visits to School A. She is on call when a pupil falls ill. She also assists the doctor in vaccinations and health examinations.

4. There is a combination study hall-library room into which most pupils are sent for one period each day. The librarian says that her biggest job is that of "riding herd" over pupils. She feels that she should be free to serve pupils and faculty as a librarian.

5. Each pupil in School A is assigned to a homeroom. He reports to his homeroom for about twelve minutes upon arrival at school each morning; and for periods of five minutes just before lunch, immediately following lunch, and at the close of the school day. The homeroom is used almost exclusively as an administrative device, and both pupils and teachers think it could be eliminated to good advantage.

6. Chairmen of departments have no special function except that of working on teaching schedules in their respective departments.

7. Nearly all teachers feel that their responsibility is to teach, and they are given freedom to teach as they think best. It is convenient, of course, "to have someone to whom one can send a troublesome pupil."

8. Mr. Orland, the principal of School A, is a member of the boards of his civic club, the Boy Scouts, his church, and the P.T.A. He is a member of the chamber of commerce, the athletic board in his dis-

trict, and of the subcommittee on interschool activities of the secondary-school principals association in his state. Add to these the numerous requests-on-call from the various interest groups and organizations in his town, and, "Well, it takes time, doesn't it?"

Mr. Orland is an affable man. He tries to see every person who desires to see him, particularly those who come in from the community. He was asked if these people usually come by appointment. Mr. Orland said, "A few. But most of them just drop in at their convenience. Many of my school days are completely wasted in seeing callers whose business could just as well have been transacted by telephone. But they want to come in, and they are welcome to do so. There are others who have a few moments with nothing in particular to do, so they come in to say hello. I'm a little ashamed to make this confession, but my time is so taken that I am frequently unable to see my own faculty about school matters."

The principal and the vice-principal make the final class schedule in School A. This is often "quite a task because it is a compromise, a reconciliation of the desires of the various department chairmen."

Mr. Orland meets with the faculty as a whole twice each month, unless he is out of town. The meetings are usually devoted to rather routine matters, to explanation of new policies of the board of education, to the salary question, to teacher retirement, and to similar matters.

Mr. Orland is a member of a curriculum committee in School A, which is composed also of the vice-principal and teachers representing each department of instruction. They meet occasionally to hear reports on what the various departments are doing. There is also a committee of teachers who are working on "common learnings" for all pupils. Members of this committee, including Mr. Orland, attend an extension class offered by a professor of secondary education in a nearby college. Mr. Orland's attendance is irregular, however.

In answer to a question about pupil records, Mr. Orland said, "No, we do not have, I'm sure, an adequate system of records. It's spotty. We try to keep attendance and grades in good shape, and we have the I.Q.'s of most of our students, but we wonder at times if this is worth the money—the ways the I.Q.'s are used, that is." He was asked if he would elaborate that statement. "Yes," he replied. "I'm afraid the majority of our teachers do not understand much about the intelligence test. They tend to accept the I.Q. as sufficient

and final for judging a pupil's ability. They assume that if the I.Q. is a little below normal, then the child just can't learn. I'm sure the mortality rate would be much higher in this school but for the fact that we have compulsory school attendance. Even so, it is entirely too high in a number of our academic subjects. This is a tough problem, but we have to face it.

"No, we do not do much about discovering the needs of individual pupils. Our school is, I'm afraid, too much of what you would call a teacher-centered school." Mr. Orland paused thoughtfully and continued, "No doubt these boys and girls need more help than we are providing them. At that we probably know more about these pupils than we realize. We haven't systematized what we do know in terms of the implications for guidance. I have worried about guidance. The faculty and I talk about what needs to be done. We can't add more personnel, that's certain, and our schedule is so crowded now that we don't see how we could add another thing."

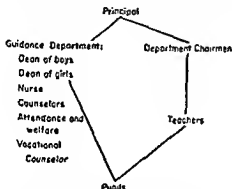
Unusual? Not at all. This well-meaning principal is not basically unlike a great many others in the United States. He and the faculty work hard, School A has a good band and a better than average football team, and it makes a good showing in other particulars. What is more, the pupils who graduate from School A and enter college generally do well. Teachers in School A worry about "stimulating the pupils to learn," but they are for the most part very well satisfied. One teacher seemed to speak for the majority when she said, "No, people in this community meddle very little in school affairs, and we surely don't bother them."

School B. School B is a four-year senior high school of a few more than 1,300 pupils. It is situated in a community of some 20,000 population which boasts a healthy income derived from agriculture, small industrial establishments, and thriving retail businesses. It is an aggressive community, with a good public library, delightful parks and playgrounds, a good though small museum, and organizations of several types that are continuously looking for something constructive to do.

School B has fifty-odd teachers. Their salaries are good, and they have fairly adequate facilities in which and with which to work. As might be expected, the faculty of School B is in many ways an accomplished group of people. Mr. Lansford, the name we shall give

the principal, declares that his is the best high-school faculty to be found anywhere. The median age of the faculty is forty, and the average term of service in School B is nine years. The principal has held his office ten years. He is now forty-three years of age.

Several days were spent studying School B. It is an interesting school. Its organization for guidance is shown in the accompanying chart.



Mr. Lansford heads the guidance work in School B, although he confesses that his diverse responsibilities keep him so occupied that he cannot give much attention to guidance as such. Assisting Mr. Lansford are the deans of boys and of girls, each of whom devotes full time to the office. In addition, six teachers are released from teaching responsibilities two periods (two hours) each day for guidance work, and the vocational counselor teaches only one class a day. The school nurse devotes one-half of her time to School B.

When asked about the role of teachers in guidance, Mr. Lansford said, "We do not consider teachers as guidance workers. Of course our teachers are fine and they no doubt do some advising. But the main purpose of having the deans of boys and girls on a full-time basis is that they may carry the burden of guidance. Then we have six of our best teachers giving one-third of their time to guidance counseling, our nurse spends one-half of her time in this building, and the vocational counselor gives five-sixths of his school time to guidance. With a staff like that looking after guidance activities, we believe teachers are relieved of many problems which might otherwise take their attention and time from teaching."

The deans of students in School B are, according to their own statements, little more than combination attendance officers and disciplinarians.

The attendance and welfare officer comes by the deans' offices each morning to pick up the names of children and of parents who are "showing delinquent tendencies." Then he is off to a day's work in the community, and he may not report back to school until the following morning. This means that the deans spend a disproportionate amount of their time issuing, and refusing to issue, permits to students. There are permits for almost every movement in School B. The deans also confer with parents and teachers, supervise student activities, and, though seldom, counsel students. It is feared that the deans of boys and girls are rather ineffective guidance functionaries. As one of them stated in private, "There's something about this job that gets under the skin and needles to beat the mischief. I'm neither fish nor fowl any more. I'm not a teacher, I'm not a counselor, I'm not a vice-principal—I'm a *dean*, whatever that is. I feel that I am losing the fine relations I've always had with my fellow teachers. And my relations with students? They are practically gone after three years."

The school nurse is a splendid person. She works diligently, mostly with girls, on matters of bealthful living, including mental aspects of good bealth. She is busy working with girls who seek her counsel on their own initiative. But she says, "I can't do this job singlehanded. It is everybody's business, if we only knew it."

The vocational counselor is situated in a building some two hundred steps from the main building on the School B campus. He has his own set of records, which consist of little more than the results shown by vocational-interest and aptitude tests, school marks, and marks received on work experience, with emphasis upon grades earned in the vocational curriculum. "That's about all I need," he insists. He seldom goes "over to Main," as he calls the main high-school building.

The teacher-counselors in School B summarize their activities as follows:

1. They handle the registration of all new students.
2. They make adjustments which involve graduation requirements, college-entrance requirements, and the student's entire high-school program.

3. They check on pupils who are admitted to courses on trial. (There is a sharp distinction between the college-preparatory curriculum and other curricula in School B. Admission to the college-preparatory curriculum is granted upon the basis of the I.Q., plus grades earned by a pupil in his ninth year. A pupil may transfer to the college-preparatory curriculum if his school marks warrant giving him a trial. Consequently, there is a hierarchy of prerequisites, some of which are rigid. For example, chemistry is a college-preparatory course, with Algebra I a prerequisite; but a pupil must have earned a grade of B in Algebra I to be admitted unconditionally to chemistry. Rarely is this "standard" lowered. By the same token, Algebra II is a college-preparatory course which requires a grade of B in Algebra I for admission. Strong recommendations from teachers and principal may permit a pupil who has made a C in Algebra I to enroll in the next course on a trial basis.)

4. They attempt to keep track of all pupils who are failing, and they frequently write letters to parents to report unsatisfactory work.

5. They prepare materials for inclusion in pupils' cumulative-record folders.

6. They make up registration cards and schedules of classes for the benefit of pupils.

7. They constantly check grade points and insist that pupils who are not doing well have conferences with their teachers.

8. They work with pupils and teachers in an effort to develop better study habits and attitudes among pupils.

9. They assist in equalizing class loads.

10. They discuss personal problems with some of the pupils.

11. They supply information about pupils when teachers request them to do so.

12. They frequently assist with discipline cases.

Teacher-counselors in School B state quite frankly that they are not getting the satisfaction from their work that they would like to get. They believe that "teachers should be brought into the picture to a far greater extent." They were asked why members of the guidance department did not take the initiative and work more intimately with all teachers. The reply was, "First, we do not have the time. Second, our status, our duties, are not sufficiently defined."

School B buys, gives, and scores a sufficient number of tests. The testing program as such is adequate. But the cumulative-record

folders include little else about pupils other than school marks and attendance records. There is no systematic attempt to interpret the contents of pupils' record folders.

The attitudes of classroom teachers in School B cover a wide range. There are a few who are convinced that the guidance department is an ingenious device for wasting time. The vast majority believe that guidance is needed, and they regret that they do not have a larger part in the program. A small number seem to have little feeling about the matter one way or another. All teachers appear to feel that unity of purpose is lacking in School B, but they are generally too busy to try on their own initiative to change the situation. "In fact," volunteered one teacher, "the guidance department has added to our loads by increasing the amount of paper work we are called upon to do, much of which doesn't make much sense. We continue to hear about the party, but as yet we have not received a cordial invitation to it. We prepare the refreshments." Other teachers nodded agreement.

One cannot help thinking what a party it would be if this large group of capable teachers in School B were called upon, not only to attend it, but to help to plan it as well.

School C. School C is different in a variety of respects from Schools A and B. School C is a three-year high school, staffed by thirteen teachers and a principal. Mr. Benford, the principal, earned the master's degree in educational administration from a leading university. He made special effort, however, to squeeze into his program of studies both elementary and secondary education, with emphasis upon supervision of instruction. In the meantime, he had taught at both the elementary- and secondary-school levels.

The teachers in School C average well from the standpoints of academic preparation and experience. Not one of these teachers has taught in School C more than sixteen years. Three years is the shortest period of service in this school. Meeting these people reveals nothing spectacular about them. Conversely, they do not lend the impression that they are incompetent. They must be "discovered" to be fully appreciated for their real worth.

After several days of quiet but rather careful study of School C, the authors were invited by Mr. Benford and the faculty to an evening meeting. They were promised an informal dinner, and there was to be plenty of time to discuss school and schooling, with par-

ticular reference to School C. The group met in the school dining room at 6:30, and there was a warmth of feeling among the professional people that was pleasant to share. There was genuine expression of oneness clearly in evidence at all times.

After a leisurely dinner, Mr. Benford tapped his water glass with a fork and said, "Fellow teachers, we have company this evening, and we are pleased. We have no set program, no agenda. You suggested this meeting, and, if I understood your desires, we are to sit informally and talk about C High School and our work here. I have, therefore, nothing more to say now. This is everyone's meeting." And he sat down.

As frequently happens, all eyes were turned upon the "company" at this point, so this question was raised, "What about guidance in C High School?" Everyone hesitated to answer this rather sweeping question, and Mr. Benford smiled broadly. After a moment or two, one of the teachers spoke. In substance, this is what she said: "Speaking for myself, I'm not at all sure I know what this thing called guidance really means. I confess my shortcoming in this field here and now. I hope, however, that I shall one day have opportunity to study guidance. In the meantime, it takes about all the time I have just to be a fair teacher." Others behaved as if they were about to cheer their colleague.

Then a lady, a middle-aged teacher, spoke. She began by saying, "I've been teaching here for sixteen years. As I look back over the first ten years here, it seems to me that we were all more or less lost. We didn't have much spirit. Teaching was something of a chore. The community did not seem to have much interest in the school. Neither did the children. We had many problems. We had three—no, four—principals during that time; and, as I recall, I am the only one left of the faculty who were here when I first came to C High School. There were new teachers every year. At times as many as 50 per cent were new. And I know many who left for reasons other than salary. Perhaps you wonder why I did not leave," and she smiled. "You see, I married here and settled down."

There was another pause, and then the same teacher continued: "Six years ago Mr. Benford came to us as principal. Now, I feel that since I have been here longer than anyone else on the faculty there are a few things I can say. We think we have a good school now. If we are right, I think I know some of the reasons why. First

of all, Mr. Benford started working with the faculty. He began immediately. He talked with us personally. I shall never forget when I first met him. It was a few days before school started in the fall of his first year here. He came to my classroom where I was looking over some material. We talked about school in general and my work in particular. He remained only a little while, but I still remember a remark he made. He said, 'I feel that my job here is primarily that of working for the faculty. I want very much to help in every possible way I can, but it is hard to help a fellow unless you know what he needs. Maybe—I hope—teachers will let me know how I can help them.' I pondered that remark. 'It's hard to help a fellow unless you know what he needs,' I mused to myself after Mr. Benford had gone. I was curious to know whether or not he really meant it. I talked with my husband about it that night, but his only contribution was, 'Look, the man hasn't even been tried yet. Hold your verdict.'

"It was not long before my thoughts were turned to my pupils. This is a small town, and I know most of them; but when I started thinking about their individual needs, I was forced to conclude that I did not really know them as individuals. I did not know enough about them to help them much."

The praise of Mr. Benford did not stop here. Another teacher began by saying, "I think we all wondered how things would be that year. You will recall that that was my first year here also. School started well, as I remember. I know I had more opportunities to talk with my principal about my problems as a teacher than I ever had before." Mr. Benford was by now blushing as only a sensitive, modest man can blush. The teacher continued, "Another thing impressed me, and still does. I noticed right away that we were meeting as a faculty regularly, although there was no prepared schedule of faculty meetings. We just met, and we still get together, when something worth while should be discussed. There are three things about our faculty meetings that continue to impress me. First, it seems that in practically every instance the faculty meets at its own request. Second, agenda are always prepared in advance, showing what the faculty members want to discuss. Third, Mr. Benford invariably attaches short summaries of research and professional readings pertinent to the problems to be discussed, together with a few stimulating implications for us in C High School. As for

myself, I've learned a great deal by working with other faculty members."

Mr. Benford spoke now for the first time since his brief remarks right after dinner. "I appreciate personally what you have been saying, but we were going to talk about guidance. There may be some pretty close relationships between what we are doing and what is commonly referred to as guidance. Some things have happened, and are happening now, that are quite different from what we were doing even three years ago. Perhaps we know more about our pupils as individual people than we once knew. Perhaps we have modified our practices in a variety of ways that are important to pupil adjustment. Perhaps—"

"Excuse me for interrupting," said a man who teaches mathematics. "There are a few things I should like to throw in about identifying pupils. About five years ago, you will recall, we began to look at pupils' records. We discovered we had very little information about them on file, less even than some of us thought we should have. But we—I at least—didn't know the half of it. I recall that several of us worked fairly hard to find out what minimum information we should have in a pupil's permanent-record folder, but most of all *why* we should have this information. The majority of you know the story. We have built up our system of records, our testing program, until now we *know* something about these youngsters. We no longer have to guess. We have family data from a long way back. We know, or we can easily find out by studying a pupil's cumulative record, about his health, his school progress, his abilities, his interests and how they have changed from year to year, his aptitudes, his personal habits and how they have changed, and many of his personal problems. Why, to read through the notes teachers have made about these pupils one can see how they have grown. Incidentally, it is interesting to observe how much we teachers have improved our abilities to make anecdotal records for inclusion in pupils' folders. I had to learn to make anecdotal records almost from scratch."

"That isn't all," began another teacher. "As you know, we in English are notorious for our healthy dislike of anything that has to do with tests and with record keeping. Frankly, it never made sense to me before, and I suffered through a course in tests and measurements. I even started a course in statistics, but that was too

much. However, I am beginning to see why these things are necessary. But let me get back to the point. We are teaching differently. The data we gather, the information we have about each of our pupils, and the ways we interpret these data have given me for the first time in my life good reasons for modifying my subject matter and methods of teaching. I study continuously the records of my pupils. It helps me to see each as a person, a whole person. I also get ideas from all other teachers in the school for all kinds of things to do in the classroom. And from pupils, too. I had no idea how intent they are upon learning. They are eager to learn when they can see any point to it. Pupils have so much information about all phases of life, and so much curiosity; but unless we discover what they know and what they are interested in, we go on making the assumption that they do not know anything that is important, and our personal interests take precedence.

"High-school boys and girls are a liberal education for us if we would hut stop long enough to study them and let them teach us. All they need is sympathetic help. Of course they can't all learn the same things equally well, but since I got to know my pupils, I've been surprised how much even the slowest of them can learn. For example, I didn't know until two or three years ago that a pupil, any pupil, will improve a great deal in reading ability when three conditions are present: first, when he can see a reason for reading; second, when there is a wide range of materials available for him to read; and third, when he is provided with time for reading. Not all pupils will read the same things, but why should they? Their interests are so different."

"There is something else," declared still another teacher, "that has helped more than anything. When we discovered that it was not necessary to meet every class five full hours a week, we found that we had time to discuss problems with pupils—all kinds of problems. Who started this business of five class hours each week in all subjects anyway?" Without waiting for an answer to his question, he continued, "Four full hours of class work each week is certainly enough time for my pupils and me. The free and informal time provided teachers and pupils in this school, time for teachers to work with pupils and time for pupils to seek help with whatever bothers them, has, for my money, paid well. One thing more: We now have time to get out into the community with our pupils, or without them,

for the purpose of finding out what is there that we can use to enrich in many ways what we are trying to do here at school. You can't beat it."

"But what about guidance?" the teachers were asked.

"I've been waiting for that question," a young woman said. "We have a guidance program, but we are not beating any drums about it. I took two courses in guidance two years ago. I discovered in some books, and from my professor, much that I already knew as a result of our work here. For example, we go all out for a complete, comprehensive cumulative record of each pupil; and we study those records. I found out that all teachers are supposed to be guidance workers. We *are*. We may not be the best, but we are trying hard to be. I learned that guidance is not something to be tacked on as an extra to the regular school program. Well, we didn't tack it on as an extra here. We just changed our ways of behaving in the classroom so that we could *teach* for pupil adjustment, and we changed our organization, which you have just heard about, so that we could work with our pupils as individuals. We are supposed to have a psychologist, and I am sure we could use one now and then; but there are proportionately few children, I believe, who are so maladjusted as to be beyond the reach of good teachers who work sympathetically with them and who adjust their teaching to the individual needs of boys and girls. We see results, and we have every reason to believe that we are also preventing maladjustment.

"We are supposed to have on our faculty a specialist in health. It seems to me we are managing fairly well in this respect, although we have no such person on our staff. Our doctors and public-health people are cooperating with us almost 100 per cent. They help a lot with some of our more serious problems, and every school has a few of these. Doctors, for example, help in two very important ways: They can counsel some pupils who would not accept our counsel at all, and then they pass on information and suggestions to us that help us to make some adjustments; and they often influence parents in very positive ways and in very helpful ways. If the school has good relations with doctors, they in turn can help the school. And they usually will, too, if they are asked. Have I answered your question?" she concluded. She had.

After the meeting with the faculty of C High School, Mr. Benford was asked if he could supply a chart showing the organization for

guidance in his school. He beamed mischievously and twitted, "Professors are certainly chart-minded. I get requests by mail and in person. I've been tempted several times to sit down and dash off an organization chart for mimeographing. Then I could hand it out and let every person make his own interpretations. No, seriously, I do not have one to give to you. If I had, it would likely be obsolete in a short time. And if I *should* draw one, I would put the principal at the bottom with arrows pointing up to the classroom as the basic administrative unit of guidance, and of everything else. I mean that. It is true that I am the administrative head in this particular building, and teachers recognize that, I think. But I work for them. It is they who do the job, good or bad, and I'm trying to the best of my ability to help them to do the job well. It keeps me hopping. I have to study. It is terribly embarrassing to have a teacher ask your assistance and catch you so threadbare of information that the best you can do is give her a flimsy opinion and hope against hope that the situation will work out. Teachers may not know the answers, but they know when they are getting help and when they are not.

"Speaking of guidance," Mr. Benford went on, "it all looks like one big school job to me. Mind you, we could use some special services to good advantage on occasions, but we can't afford the personnel. And my guess is that if youth in this country ever have the in-school guidance they deserve, principals and teachers are going to have to provide practically all of it. They are going to have to study individual pupils much more than they have in the past. They must know them; and they simply can't study individual pupils without making some reasonable adjustments in curriculum and in methods. Furthermore, to know a child—really know him—is to develop a personal feeling for, and a personal interest in, his welfare. It is, I believe, the finest possible antidote to selfishness, and we are selfish to the extent that we try to impose our wills, our interests, upon young people.

"But there is one more thing I should like to say before we adjourn. It is amazing how well teachers can develop their ability to counsel pupils once they begin to understand them as individual personalities. With just a little help they can become passably skilled. But it takes a lot of on-the-job leadership and assistance. I often think that there isn't a man among us who is big enough for the position he holds as high-school principal," Mr. Benford concluded.

Similar illustrations could be drawn from city school systems. But one can go from city to city studying guidance services as they are offered only to find widely differing practices among secondary schools within a given district. One school in a city may be providing excellent guidance, while another school in the same city gives guidance verbal embracement and practical discouragement. And the difference usually is the difference in quality and quantity of leadership provided, not in basic differences in quality of faculties.

THE PRINCIPAL MAKES ASSUMPTIONS

The secondary-school principal should make certain assumptions relative to guidance in his school. This is basic to organizational planning. For example, he may assume with Erickson and Smith¹⁰ that:

1. Every pupil will at some time need the services of an organized guidance program.
2. Guidance services must be provided in accordance with the specific needs of the pupils in that community.
3. The cooperative efforts of administrators and staff members are essential to the development of an effective guidance program.
4. Developing a guidance program requires the selection of a definite starting point.
5. The school must discover and draw into the program all the worthwhile guidance activities already being carried on in the school.
6. The success of the guidance program will be conditioned by the competency of counselors, the contribution of teachers, the support of school administrators, and the utilization of community resources.
7. The practices, procedures, tools, and techniques employed in the guidance program must be adapted to the training and ability of the guidance workers who are to make use of them.
8. Every staff member must have a reasonable understanding and appreciation of the practices, procedures, functions, and objectives of the guidance program.
9. The guidance program must be continuously evaluated in terms of preparation and attitudes of staff members, administrative support, the effectiveness of the guidance services, and the adequacy of physical and personnel facilities.

¹⁰ Clifford E. Erickson and Glenn E. Smith, *Organization and Administration of Guidance Services*, pp. 116-117, McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., New York, 1947.

There are also other assumptions it seems reasonable to suggest that the secondary-school principal make. The following merit consideration.

1. The principal should assume that the basic resources needed for guidance services in his school are at present in the school and in the community—faculty, pupils, office assistants, lay people, and community organizations and institutions other than the school; and that these resources will remain somewhat constant save for changes in points of view and in ways of working with youth.

2. He should assume that there are now some genuinely worthwhile guidance activities being carried on in the school.

3. He should assume that, within the present framework of organization, guidance services can be provided and developed without radical change.

4. He should assume that a respectable number of his present faculty are capable of developing into skillful guidance workers.

5. He should assume that cooperative, on-the-job work and study are probably the most promising means by which members of the faculty are likely to become skilled guidance workers.

The principal should by now have an understanding of the nature of youth's worries and their basic needs for guidance. He should readily see that guidance is a major function of secondary education; that the purposes of guidance do not run counter to, but are consistent with, the purposes of secondary education; and that guidance, therefore, is not something set apart from, but rather an inseparable part of, the whole-school program of teaching and learning. He should also see that the pupil must be the focal point of all education, including guidance; and he should be aware that lack of information about each pupil means a lessening of opportunities for pupils in the school. Finally, the principal should recognize the fact that his own role is that of educational leadership, supervision at its best. He should realize that guidance does not demand something totally new in the nature of organization. The school is in operation now, and a few modifications in organization will facilitate guidance and all other services of the school. The principal can therefore chart his course. He needs only to take steps.

THE PRINCIPAL TAKES STEPS

The principal, because of his position of leadership, should take some steps that are essential if guidance is to be a recognized, accomplished purpose in his school. Spears¹¹ suggests the following:

Among the steps to be taken to assure each student the right to full consideration of his personal growth, schools must do these things:

1. See to it that every guidance counselor is one who places the worth of personalities before the worth of subjects.

2. Provide the means whereby guidance workers who see the inadequacies of the curriculum can also serve in helping to change it.

3. Establish a whole-staff consciousness of, and participation in, effective personnel work.

4. Establish the classroom as the basic guidance unit, rather than the special counselor's office.

5. Let half of the guidance staff's time be spent in helping teachers to improve their ways of working with and appreciating youth.

6. Rather than growing it as a separate plant, graft guidance onto the already existing curriculum, and change the curriculum where necessary to accommodate this emphasis upon individual differences and personal worth.

The principal's steps should be guided by certain principles which relate to administrative organization to advance guidance in his school. The above steps defined by Spears suggest six such principles. Hamrin and Erickson¹² enumerate still others which do not run counter to Spears's list but rather tend to supplement it in some respects.

1. The guidance program should be administered in terms of the needs, interests, abilities, and opportunities of the pupil.

2. Guidance services should be available to all pupils at all educational levels.

3. Guidance is concerned with the best development of the "total" individual. It must be so organized that pupil experiences be coordinated and related.

4. The guidance program must be organized to enlist the understanding, the interest, ability, and energy of every member of the staff.

¹¹ Harold Spears, *The High School for Today*, p. 202, American Book Company, New York, 1950.

¹² Hamrin and Erickson, *op. cit.*, pp. 333-334.

5. The guidance program should be organized to care for problems that have developed, to prevent such problems from arising, and to help each pupil secure for himself the most productive and positive experiences. In other words, the guidance program should be organized to cure, to prevent, and to enrich.

6. The administration of the guidance program should insure planned services which are purposeful and unified.

7. The guidance program should be administered so that specialists may constantly seek to strengthen teachers.

8. The guidance program should be organized to utilize, to supplement, and to enrich the guidance experiences provided pupils by the home and community.

9. The guidance program should be so administered that personal contacts and "the human touch" are provided.

10. The guidance program should help members become increasingly able to guide themselves.

In addition to the above steps the principal in all likelihood should:

1. Reappraise his own understanding of individual members of his faculty in light of their functions as guidance workers and in light of their past performance and possible future contributions.

2. Secure at least tentative agreement upon some long-term and some short-term objectives toward which all can and will work. In this connection, it is usually wise to agree upon some short-term objectives, which are of course consistent with long-term goals, and which there is reasonable expectancy of achieving in a given period of time. Faculties need the stimulus and the feeling of security which go with success in a worth-while undertaking.

3. See to it that there are clear definitions of the functions of each faculty member.

4. Establish points of beginning. This will involve clear understanding of what is already being done in providing guidance and related services to pupils. In all probability one of the first things to do will be to determine the exact nature of the information and data the school now has about each pupil, the extent to which members of the faculty utilize fully the information and data now on file, and the tasks still to be done to satisfy the requirements of an adequate system of records.

5. Establish working relationships between various members of the staff, being certain that these relationships are such that the

work of each member of the faculty strengthens the work of all others.

If steps such as these are taken by the principal, who is certain at all times that he is working in partnership with members of the faculty, he will soon discover that organization will emerge as a democratically conceived device which is fashioned flexibly as a servant of the faculty and the pupils in the school.

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CHAPTER 11 *The Homeroom: Its Uses and Possibilities as a Guidance Center*

Schedules are not considered complete in many secondary schools until provision has been made for the homeroom by arranging for certain pupils to meet with certain teachers in given rooms at given times. The homeroom as it is known today is as new as the modern secondary school. It came into being as a result of demands made upon the schools to offer guidance services. It was organized to serve as a guidance center, and its uses in the past indicate fairly well the concepts of guidance of its users. It is not surprising, therefore, that the homeroom period was seized upon by many administrators as a convenient time for expediting administrative routine, and this practice still persists. But the homeroom is now rapidly coming to be thought of as an appropriate place for guidance in the school second only to the classroom. In the homeroom something may be done for and with young people besides acquainting them with rules and regulations and with certain bodies of organized subject matter.

CURRENT USES OF THE HOMEROOM

The Homeroom as an Administrative Device. Administrative uses of the homeroom vary from school to school. Certain administrative functions are commonly performed in the homeroom, however. These functions are (1) checking attendance, (2) collecting data for the administration, (3) distributing report cards, (4) reading announcements issued from the principal's office, (5) promoting money-raising campaigns, and (6) distributing supplies.

A certain amount of routine is necessary to the proper functioning

of every school, but extreme care should be exercised to keep administrative routine to a minimum. Such things as ill-timed, irrelevant announcements, laborious attendance records, the collection of data which are not used to a pronounced advantage, and frequent money-raising campaigns are of questionable value. Every item of administrative detail should be thoroughly examined in the light of educational objectives before being presented in the homeroom to demand the time of pupils and teachers. Otherwise the homeroom period will be completely dissipated and the waste in time will be exorbitant. For example, an announcement which might well be postponed or canceled may easily consume three to five minutes. Suppose that an announcement takes three minutes, including the time required for getting pupils' attention, reading it, and allowing time for questions. This will represent a total of 93 minutes in a homeroom of thirty pupils and a teacher. Fifteen such homerooms, each listening to the same announcement, represent a total time consumption of 1,395 minutes, or 23 hours and 15 minutes. Consider the frequency of such a practice, together with the numbers enrolled in many modern secondary schools, and the figures become staggering.

The Homeroom as a Center for Educational Guidance. Closely allied with administration are certain educational-guidance functions the homeroom is frequently called upon to perform. The more common of these functions will fall into the following groups: (1) registering and classifying pupils; (2) acquainting pupils with the various course plans; (3) interpreting school rules and regulations; (4) instructing pupils in the use and care of the school plant; (5) correlating the homeroom with the broader educational-guidance services carried on in the school as a whole; and (6) teaching school and community citizenship.

Educational guidance of secondary-school youth is very necessary. The wide variety of abilities, needs, and interests typical of the young people enrolled in any school presents a great challenge to secondary education. The school is surely, if slowly, accepting this challenge. There is reason to believe that considerable progress has been made in recent years, but attempts to offer educational guidance have not been wholly satisfactory. It is, however, reasonable to believe that still further progress will be made as more accurate

information bearing upon the larger problem of guidance is made available.

That the homeroom is used as a convenient place for educational guidance is understandable. It does occupy a strategic position in the schedule; but it is now apparent that many of the educational-guidance activities carried on in the homeroom may be appropriately carried on by special advisers and as regular parts of all instructional activities in the school. This is no disparagement; until all hands are joined, and until all the school's resources are utilized in a singleness of purpose to provide educational guidance which is consistent with pupils' needs, there can be no effective program of educational guidance. The homeroom simply cannot be saddled with all activities except those incident to the teaching and learning of certain established bodies of subject matter.¹ Such an arrangement would (1) ignore the guidance possibilities inherent in the school's total program of education, and (2) make it impossible for homeroom teachers and pupils to unite in a series of purposeful activities during the homeroom period.

DISSATISFACTION WITH THE HOMEROOM

There is evidence of considerable dissatisfaction with the present uses being made of the homeroom. Many secondary-school principals and teachers have expressed serious concern about the failure to utilize the homeroom period as a guidance period to the best advantages. Generally speaking, they continue to believe that the homeroom has many possibilities as a guidance center, but they are not sure how it should be used. Meanwhile, the homeroom is retained in the schedule by many principals for such activities as class meetings, pep rallies, club meetings, and special band and choral work.²

There is still evidence of some confusion relative to the homeroom, and there is still awareness, as Kirby³ stated, that:

¹ Leonard V. Koos and Grayson N. Kefauver, *Guidance in Secondary Schools*, p. 559, The Macmillan Company, New York, 1933.

² From an unpublished study by Wilson Little, 1949, in which 200 secondary-school principals in nine states in the South, the Middle West, and the West reported current uses of the homeroom.

³ Byron C. Kirby, "Essentials in Homeroom Activities," *School Activities*, 14:54, October, 1942.

The trouble is that this field is uncharted, the objectives nebulous, and material helps for teachers meager. This creates a challenge to any instructor in view of the fact that records and reports are becoming longer, committee meetings taxing, and extra-curricular activities burdensome. No wonder a good many of our brethren merely incorporate study periods, student visitation, and correcting papers into the activity period and call it a day. The blame for this is not solely upon the teacher. He often does not know what to do or what is expected of him—and no one else seems to know or care very much about it.

Such dissatisfaction is not to be considered a wholly discouraging sign. There is reason to believe that both administrators and teachers will make better uses of the homeroom when they comprehend its possibilities as a guidance center—when they understand youth's basic needs for guidance and when they commit themselves to guidance services that are based upon the individual needs of pupils. But, first, new purposes must be found for the homeroom.

PURPOSES OF THE HOMEROOM: ACADEMIC OR OTHERWISE?

The homeroom has found its way into the secondary school as a separate period, regardless of the ways it is used. If a certain period is devoted to homeroom activities which grow out of a desire to help pupils make adjustments which *they* feel the need for making, there seems to be little argument against its existence. Every argument favors it. It is, then, particularly important that principals and teachers have definite and unique purposes for homeroom activities because the homeroom lends itself to guidance and teaching situations unlike any other embraced by the school. It is not bound by subject lines, and there is usually no course of study prepared in advance for the homeroom teacher. The pupils and their needs for adjustment are the basic concerns. The homeroom should therefore be flexible and dynamic, seldom formal, and never static.

There are two ways by which principals and teachers may determine purposes of the homeroom. The first of these is examination of materials prepared by some of the better known students of the subject, and the second is study of the real problems about which youth worry most. Each is important, but of the two the latter is by far the more important.

Some Oft-quoted Purposes of the Homeroom. It is believed by many that Fretwell stimulated more interest in the function of the homeroom than any other person. This researcher outlined the purposes of the homeroom in the early 1930's, purposes which have been quoted in many later publications by many different authors and which have been quoted in many declarations of guidance as a homeroom activity by secondary-school people throughout the United States. But for some combination of circumstances, these purposes have not been achieved. As noble as they are, they should be examined again.

Fretwell's ' purposes of the homeroom read thus;

1. To develop individual and group initiative, right habits, and ideals.
2. To inspire to greater and higher effort along desirable lines.
3. To develop that discriminating loyalty which is enduring.
4. To develop such social principles and regard for others as loyalty, friendship, fair play, honesty, sympathy, respect, sincerity, social interdependence, and unselfish service.
5. To discuss proper attitudes toward, and habits of, good citizenship.
6. To provide opportunity for the development of intelligent obedience to authority.
7. To develop the cultural, the social, the loyal side of school life, thereby fostering a high type of idealism.
8. To develop social and civic interests in the entire school and community.
9. To develop a consciousness of ultimate goals underlying immediate goals.
10. To develop graceful and gracious ways of getting along with people.
11. To develop efficient execution of duties.
12. To develop clean living in mind, body, and surroundings.
13. To develop an attitude and regard for beauty—the appreciation of music, of art, and of literature, and of the attractive surroundings, cultivated voices, tasteful attire; not only knowledge and attitudes, but skill in these.
14. To help pupils have a healthy emotional life.
15. To help pupils know and feel that the way to have qualities they want to have is to practice these qualities.
16. To furnish a favorable opportunity for every member of the homeroom to practice the qualities of the good citizen with satisfaction.

*E. K. Fretwell, *Extra-curricular Activities in Secondary Schools*, pp. 34-35, Houghton Mifflin Company, Boston, 1931.

17. To create and maintain high class standards in classroom work.
18. To capitalize approved successful achievement of every member of the homeroom.

McKown⁴ indicates four major purposes of the homeroom. The first of these is to develop and maintain desirable pupil-teacher relationships; the second, to guide the pupil; the third, to develop desirable ideals and habits of citizenship; and the fourth, to expedite the handling of administrative routine.

Turning now to more recent purposes of the homeroom, we find that Dunsmoor and Miller⁵ urge inclusion of the following purposes:

1. To make suitable and continuous provision for the school adjustment of all students.
2. To develop desirable civic-ethical-social attitudes in students and to provide opportunities for their practice in school situations through assumption of responsibilities and the development of group loyalty.
3. To encourage and develop worthy and intelligent leadership and "followership."
4. To provide occupational information and to help students appreciate the vocational significance and values of school activities.

Careful examination of the foregoing purposes of the homeroom reveals that there is scarcely one among them that should not be of concern to every teacher of every subject offered in the school. Good citizenship, the development of initiative, desirable pupil-teacher relationships, worthy ideals, respect for the views of others, aesthetic development, the maintenance of high standards in classroom work, respect for constituted authority, development of the ability to get along well with others, emotional stability, sensitivity to the needs of the individual and of the group, occupational information—these are qualities about which better teachers are seriously concerned and about which modern education demands that all teachers be concerned. They are not unlike those qualities Fahey⁷ describes as the goals of the guidance functions every teacher can

⁴ H. C. McKown, *Home Room Guidance*, 2d ed., pp. 27-45, McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., New York, 1948.

⁵ C. C. Dunsmoor and L. M. Miller, *Principles and Methods of Guidance for Teachers*, pp. 272-273, International Textbook Company, Scranton, Pa., 1949.

⁷ G. L. Fahey, "What Every Teacher Can Do for Guidance," *School Review*, 50:516-522, September, 1942.

and should perform. He declares that every teacher should be about the business of:

Aiding pupils to fix goals for themselves by clearly setting forth the objectives of instruction.

Showing the opportunities that the subject under study offers for recreative and leisure-time pursuits, vocational preparation, life-adjustments, and further education.

Aiding pupils to attain self-understanding by analysis of their own strengths and weaknesses.

Developing in pupils desirable habits in the field of mental and physical health.

Developing desirable character and moral attitudes and habits.

Allowing pupils to experience the joy of success.

Aiding pupils in adjusting to school and community life.

Developing in fellow-teachers, in pupils, and others favorable attitudes toward typical children.

Aiding pupils in the acquisition of facilitating skills.

Adjusting content, time, and methods to needs of individual pupils.

Setting clearly defined but flexible standards of work.

Detecting and preventing failures in the incipient stages.

Avoiding teaching procedures which inhibit adjustment.

Making patient, tactful, sympathetic attempts to understand each pupil and his problems.

It should be clearly understood that the homeroom cannot be made responsible for the development of all desirable attitudes and personality traits and for all guidance, while various subject-matter teachers stress only the mastery of their subjects. This would be wholly wrong. Such a separation of functions would ignore one of the soundest of psychological procedures.

Most of the purposes of the homeroom as described above imply the utilization of subject matter characteristic of many subject fields. Teachers therefore reason that if these purposes are to be achieved, then something must be taught in the homeroom. But what? There is little to offer except that which is already being offered in regular classes, and teachers are not inclined, nor have they been inclined, to cover the same ground twice. As a result of this circumstance, books have been written projecting homeroom programs for a year, or for the entire high-school span. Other books have been written outlining lessons to be taught in the homeroom period. Both teachers

and pupils rebelled against such procedures. With few exceptions, homeroom activities, aside from those described earlier in this chapter, are now made up of series of programs.

There developed the idea in secondary schools that every activity in the homeroom should be highly organized—a typical teaching situation which is known in numerous secondary schools. The idea still obtains in many quarters. There are two likely reasons for this, aside from those which have already been given. First, the homeroom became a part of a highly organized secondary school. Second, homeroom teachers are usually selected from the teaching staff, and should be, and most of them are committed to rather formalized procedures. These procedures have carried over into the homeroom so that now “guidance programs” are too often quite formal. The program concept is the vogue. Some homeroom activities may well be conducted as programs. These, however, should consume only a small portion of the total time. The strictly informal homeroom is desirable in the majority of instances, and should be emphasized if each child is to profit maximally. The one lends itself to a performer-audience situation. The other invites the active participation of all members of the group. The performer-audience type of activity should be reserved for the school assembly; or there may be a few occasions when it is proper for one homeroom to prepare and give a program for the benefit of another. Such a venture, however, should measure up fully as a guidance service for everyone, performers and audience alike. To be sure that all activities of the homeroom meet the criteria of guidance, homeroom teachers and other guidance personnel should permit the following purposes to give them direction, meaning, and power:

1. To provide every pupil with opportunities to express himself and to know others' opinions on matters of concern to youth of his own maturity level.

2. To provide every pupil with experiences conducive to the development of a sense of belonging in his group both within and outside the school.

3. To provide information and experiences by which each pupil may be brought to understand that social adjustment, with attendant adaptations, is both beneficial and possible.

4. To provide information and a range of activities which are calculated to enable each youth to isolate and move against his own

personal problems in order that he may resolve them satisfactorily.

These purposes were not academically derived. The reader will recall that some five thousand youth widely distributed among secondary schools in the United States stated that their major worries lie in the areas of social adjustment, family relations, the use of time, planning for the future, personality development, part-time jobs and money, and health. The most determined effort should be put forth in the homeroom to aid students in the solution of their problems.

THE HOMEROOM FAVORS GROUP GUIDANCE

The most satisfactory way for an individual to solve his personal and social problems is to work as a member of a group. The homeroom accommodates the ideal group. Pupils are vitally interested in problems of personal and social adjustment, and they will generally study and discuss them when assisted by an understanding, sympathetic homeroom teacher. Moreover, when students meet in a group where each member is familiar with the others, a pupil frequently receives immeasurable help without raising a question or participating in discussions. He is able to adjust unnoticed. This is important because young people are often so constructed that they are reluctant to admit openly some of their most serious worries. The resourceful teacher who studies his group as individuals and who goes intelligently about the business of directing discussions and other activities around known problems of his pupils can render the highest type of guidance service in the homeroom. It is not necessary to know all the problems of each student. To know some of the problems is sufficient to provide sound bases for planning homeroom activities, for it is almost certain that most of the pupils have the same or very similar difficulties. As time goes on, the homeroom teacher will be able to identify many of the most pressing worries of his group.

There are other arguments favoring group guidance. Dunsmoor and Miller * make the following points:

1. It is the only effective means whereby guidance for every student can be assured under present-day school conditions.

* Dunsmoor and Miller, *op. cit.*, pp. 8-9.

2. It facilitates the use of the preventive problem-solving approach as a means of guidance, since it provides the guide . . . with the opportunities for observing the child at regular intervals.

3. It makes for economy of the counselor's or teacher's time and energy, since many types of information of guidance value are needed by all students.

4. It provides an opportunity for students to learn from the group and from each other.

5. It offers the students an opportunity to become acquainted with their counselor or teacher-adviser, and he with them, thus providing a good background for effective individual counseling.

6. It affords a medium for routine administration and scoring of objective tests and interest blanks.

7. It offers one of the best opportunities for securing and recording dependable objective data about the students.

8. It provides for easy consideration and solution of problems involving group opinion and participation.

9. It furnishes a means of integrating classroom subjects, extra-class activities, and vocational needs.

Hoppock* advances the following reasons in support of group guidance:

It saves time

It provides a background of related information that improves counseling.

It gives the counselor an opportunity to know his students better.

It focuses collective judgment on common problems.

It provides some assurance that the problem cases will not monopolize the counselor's time and thus make it necessary for a boy to break a window in order to get some guidance.

It can be provided without increasing the school budget.

It may permit a part-time counselor to spend full time on guidance and thus to become more competent.

It keeps the teacher-counselor up to date.

The importance of individual guidance is not to be minimized. It is necessary at times. Moreover, young people are more likely to seek individual counsel when the school provides opportunities for group guidance through the homeroom. There is a tendency, however, for secondary-school principals to try to provide individual

* Robert Hoppock, *Group Guidance: Principles, Techniques, and Evaluation*, pp. 5-7, McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., New York, 1949.

guidance for all students by designating certain teachers as counselors. This is practically impossible even if desirable. In the first place, very few schools can afford such a staff. In the second place, about the only way counselors could ever see each student privately would be to force some of the pupils into their offices by "invitation." This would guarantee negative results and is therefore unwise. In the third place, not all pupils need individual counsel, nor are all counselors equipped to handle all cases intelligently. Guidance simply cannot be imposed upon boys and girls in secondary school. It is possible to force pupils generally to conform to rules and regulations, even to force them into the counselor's room. But such practice is not to be confused with guidance. In this connection, Brewer's¹⁰ criteria of guidance should be reread by all who have read them before and they should be read thoughtfully by all those not now familiar with them. His criteria follow.

1. The person being guided is performing a task, solving a problem, or moving toward some objective.
2. The person being guided usually takes the initiative and asks for guidance.
3. The guide has sympathy, friendliness and understanding.
4. The guide is guide because of superior wisdom, experience, and knowledge.
5. The method of guidance is by way of offering opportunities for new experiences and enlightenment.
6. The person guided progressively consents to receive guidance, reserves the right to refuse guidance offered, and makes his own decisions.
7. The guidance offered makes him better able to guide himself.

The plea for the homeroom as a guidance center is a plea for the cause of guidance and for time for guidance. That youth need guidance, all agree. But by no means have all schools provided the time for guidance. This means simply that guidance has not the value in the minds of a great many secondary-school people that other school functions have. Principals and their faculties usually find the time to do the things they feel must be done. Even a great many professed attempts to offer guidance are little more than token because time is used for other and less important activities. The homeroom as a guidance center should therefore be established and kept inviolate as

¹⁰ John M. Brewer, *Education as Guidance*, p. 22, The Macmillan Company, New York, 1932.

such. By so doing it will assure every pupil reasonable opportunity for assistance with his personal and social problems, it will aid materially in making guidance a whole-school enterprise, and it will serve as a device for the integration of guidance with all other phases of education.

THE HOMEROOM TEACHER, A KEY GUIDANCE WORKER

Rich benefits can accrue to boys and girls when they work and think together on their own problems in a homeroom presided over by a teacher who as a professional worker places the value of individual personalities above all else. Such a person has the deep conviction that the ultimate goal of the secondary school is the provision of learning experiences and guidance services that are specifically ordered to meet the needs of each individual pupil, and he employs techniques which are most likely to assure favorable outcomes—outcomes to be thought of in terms of adjusted youth. He accepts his role as counselor-teacher, and he realizes that:

The aim of counseling is self-realization for a social purpose. This involves helping the individual to understand what he can do and what he should do, to strengthen his best qualities, to handle his difficulties rationally rather than being driven by unconscious forces, to find suitable channels for emotions, and to move toward his more acceptable self. In the world today, a more acceptable self implies a concern for the welfare of all. This social aspect of counseling has been generally disregarded. Yet counseling is a potent means of building social attitudes, and, through better people, a better world

Counseling at its best is the art of helping a person to understand himself, his relations to others, and the world in which he lives. It is a learning experience for the student. It helps him to change his confused or inadequate perception of his life situation so that he can move toward a more adequate self-organization¹¹

The competent homeroom teacher-counselor understands the unique nature of personality. He realizes that the individual personality of a growing, developing youth is such that, when considered along with all the other youthful personalities in his homeroom, it tends to rule out formularized, rule-of-thumb techniques of coun-

¹¹ Ruth Strang, *Counseling Technics in College and Secondary School*, p. 15, Harper & Brothers, New York, 1949.

seling. And yet, the homeroom teacher knows that the very nature of personality permits the organization of ideas that are essential to effective guidance and counseling. As Strang¹¹ so clearly states:

The personnel worker's concept of counseling and his choice of technics depend upon his theory of personality. From the modern view of personality come ideas that give direction to the counseling process:

1. The idea of motivation—the individual's desire for self-actualization, his need to make his life as "good" or complete as possible.

2. The idea of conscious and unconscious drives to action. Behavior that is consciously motivated is likely to be reasonable and consistent; behavior that is instigated by the unconscious is likely to be irrational and unpredictable. Blindly repressed desires may give rise to inner conflicts or illness. This does not mean that a person should express his every desire, but rather that he consciously decides not to do things that are detrimental to himself or to others.

3. The idea of purpose or goal which gives direction to and integrates a person's behavior trends.

4. The idea of the dynamic organization of personality.

5. The idea of untapped resources for self-realization within the individual which can be released and will sometimes produce psychological miracles. The counselor assumes that the individual has resources for growth within himself and that, when conditions are favorable, he can move toward a better, more complete realization.

6. The idea of the many-sided aspects of personality and its continuity from birth to death.

7. The idea of the language of behavior—behavior as an expression of inner need.

8. The idea that we are products of our time—that there are cultural causes of behavior and that favorable cultural conditions make good personal development possible.

The homeroom teacher therefore makes each individual pupil a subject of intensive and continuous study. Test records are studied for their intrinsic value and in relation to the pupil's other accomplishments in and out of school. He studies the pupil, and he comes to know the pupil's habits and ways of thinking, his ideals, his aims, his problems. And the homeroom counselor-teacher employs techniques suitable to the occasion for guidance. There are many techniques by which the homeroom teacher may help pupils remove their worries and thus contribute greatly to their adjustment. Some

¹¹ *Ibid.*, pp. 16-17.

are described in paragraphs that follow. Others will be discovered by the homeroom teacher as he develops in his own ability to work with pupils in guidance situations.

THE GROUP DISCUSSION

The group discussion is mentioned first because it is probably one of the most stimulating and effective devices the teacher-counselor has for use in the homeroom. It is through well-directed discussions that pupils are often brought face to face with their problems. It is likewise by this method that pupils get the combined thinking of the group upon problems which are so vitally significant to them. A discussion that is well-founded, well-planned, and well-conducted frequently enables a pupil to see his problem in truer perspective, crystallize his own thinking about the problem, and thus become able to move intelligently against it. The pupil, with the help of his fellows and teacher, is able to maintain or restore his equilibrium.

The group discussion is one of the most difficult of all activities to use in the homeroom. It is likely that this inherent difficulty is the chief reason for its frequent neglect—or, if not neglect, its complete abandonment, which is worse. The possibility of a good discussion must not be thrown aside for activities which are more easily controlled but less valuable to pupils. A few principles will aid the homeroom teacher materially in planning and conducting the group discussion.

1. *The Discussion Should Be Based upon Problems about Which Youth Worry.* The homeroom teacher should be certain that the discussion is based upon problems which are of concern to boys and girls he meets in his own classroom. The only way this can be assured is for the teacher to make it his business to know some of the problems or areas of conflict. This will tend to activate the thinking of pupils, and the results will be positive although perhaps not immediately apparent.

2. *The Discussion Should Be Directed according to Definite Plans.* Discussions to be conducted in the homeroom should be carefully planned. A teacher may conduct a poorly planned history class and survive; but to attempt a haphazard discussion in the homeroom for guidance purposes is futile. The homeroom teacher should outline the procedure, providing, of course, for flexibility, before meeting

his group. The problem to be discussed should be thoughtfully analyzed. The attack should be so planned that the discussion will develop naturally and systematically. The questions to be raised by the teacher for steering purposes should be conducive to thought; they should not be of the sort that call for a direct answer, for such questions invariably draw lines of difference between pupils and between pupils and teacher. Problems involving personal and social adjustment are not to be dismissed with a "yes" or "no" answer. This leads to a discussion of the next principle.

3. *The Homeroom Teacher-Counselor Should Avoid Being Placed in the Position of Having to Furnish the Answers to Questions.* The chief purpose of a discussion is to clarify problems, bring to light information that can be used, and suggest possible solutions. The homeroom teacher should never allow himself to be placed in the position of having to furnish the answers to questions involving personal and social problems. Each individual pupil must make his own decisions. For the teacher to furnish the answers would be to close the discussion unsatisfactorily. It is the thought process and not the answer that is of most importance in pupil adjustment. If the answers could be furnished with any assurance that adjustment would result, then we should give pupils the final "yes" or "no" and let the matter drop. But for some peculiar reason, pupil adjustment results from a process of thinking, living, and developing. Moreover, the homeroom teacher may not know the answers. There is absolutely no rule-of-thumb method. That is why we have education, why we have guidance. That is also why pupil adjustment requires education and guidance which are thought provoking in nature.

Here is an illustration of how the teacher may place himself in the position of having to furnish the answer to a question. Suppose he and his homeroom group have planned a discussion around the problem of how best to choose one's friends, which is one of the worries of youth and which involves parent-child relationships. At the appropriate time, he may ask this question: "Does a parent have the right to exercise a large measure of influence in his son's or daughter's selection of friends?" One pupil may answer "Yes." Another student may answer with an emphatic "No." The first may have been reared in a home where parents exercise large control, even to the outright selection of their child's associates. The second

may represent a home where parents leave him to his own devices in the selection of friends. Each pupil has his own convictions, conditioned by his environment. An aggressive pupil is likely to ask the teacher a question beginning "Don't you think . . . ?" The completed question calls for a direct answer which either affirms or negates the pupil's own conviction. In either case effectiveness is lost or minimized to a notable degree, no matter how correct the teacher's response may be. It would be far better to approach the matter by suggesting discussions of such questions as: "What should be the relations between father and son?" "Between father and daughter?" "Between mother and son?" "Between mother and daughter?" "What seem to be the conditions which make for pleasant, constructive relationships between parents and their children of secondary-school age?" Finally, when the subject of control emerges in connection with the choice of friends, the teacher may raise such a question as "What are the conditions which appear to justify a parent's taking a hand in his son's or daughter's choice of friends?" This calls for more discussion and additional thinking, and solutions to the problem of how best to choose friends begin to take form.

It is not suggested that the homeroom teacher is to make no contribution to the discussion. Quite the contrary is true. However, the greatest contribution the teacher can make to the discussion lies in his ability to lead pupils to think their ways through problem-solving situations by asking timely, thought-provoking questions, and in his ability to inject pertinent items of information from time to time. In order to do this, the teacher needs to know (a) the pupils and their problems, and (b) something about why and how people think reflectively. Dewey¹⁴ presents a clear analysis of this process. According to Dewey, reflective activity begins when there is a problem to be solved, a question to be answered. The basic essentials in problem solving, of course, are prereflection and postreflection. Prereflection is the process required to establish the problem. When the problem is solved, it is through postreflection that the individual gets the full benefit of the experience. It is between prereflection and postreflection that reflective thought takes place, and this process has five rather distinct aspects.

¹⁴ John Dewey, *How We Think*, pp. 106-107, D. C. Heath and Company, Boston, 1933.

First, there is suggestion. The person having a problem to solve permits his mind to "leap forward to a possible solution."

Second, the person intellectualizes the difficulty of finding the answer he feels he must have to solve his problem.

Third, the person uses suggestions as ideas, or hypotheses, to guide him in the operations necessary to get the facts needed to solve his problem.

Fourth, the solution of a problem requires the mental elaboration of each idea, which is no less than the application of the test of reasonableness.

Fifth, the hypothesis is finally tested by the individual by action, which may be either overt or imaginative.

4. *The Homeroom Teacher Should Exercise All Possible Patience with Pupils during the Discussion Period.* Youth are keenly observant. They quickly recognize the slightest evidence of impatience on the part of the teacher. The teacher should never become impatient with pupils during a discussion. To do so is to defeat the purpose of the activity. Pupils will halt the discussion the moment the teacher becomes impatient. Elliott¹⁴ issues a timely warning against impatience on the part of the discussion leader in the following paragraph:

He is not willing to give them as much time as he needed when he himself was studying the question. He forgets that even for a practiced individual thinker, finding the way out in a situation is a slow process. His tendency is to prod the group, not to be willing to give it the opportunity to find its way out. It may take a group longer to think its way through a problem than it takes an individual to do the same thing; but if the group is involved, the group process is probably, in the long run, more expeditious than to attempt to fit together the results of individual thinking. The group process, with its check of mind against mind and experience against experience, is certainly one in which the group can have more confidence than to turn over its decision to a committee or an individual. The chairman will defeat any reliable and satisfactory conclusion if he attempts to press for decision too soon. While his business is to prevent unnecessary loss of time, he must recognize that thinking is a growth process. The best conditions for growth can be furnished; but to force the growth unduly is to fail to secure a healthy result.

¹⁴ Harrison S. Elliott, *The Process of Group Thinking*, pp. 82-83, Association Press, New York, 1928.

5. *The Homeroom Teacher Should Direct All Discussions Dealing with Problems in Areas of Personal and Social Adjustment.* The problems about which youth worry most are too involved to entrust the direction of their discussion to students of secondary-school age. The teacher, because of his superior knowledge and understanding and his skill in directing group thinking, should always lead discussions bearing upon such problems. He has information which cannot be handed over to student leaders. The teacher is also best equipped to watch reactions, change the course of the discussion in order to bring to light pertinent information, and steer the discussion away from conclusions or comments which would stimulate strong feeling or biases. Discussions should never become personal, and it is the teacher alone who is best able to direct thinking upon youth's vital problems with the poise and dignity necessary to prevent occurrences of this nature. It must not be assumed that one pupil can successfully direct the discussion of important problems of adjustment of his fellows when he himself is probably laboring under the same difficulties as his classmates. The homeroom teacher should keep these points in mind.

THE PANEL

Properly conducted, the panel discussion is very stimulating and practical. The homeroom teacher will find that this device calls forth a high degree of thought activity, it is a spicy variation in practice, and it invites active participation of both panel members and others in the room. The panel discussion cannot be used effectively if it is tried too often. Moreover, no attempt should ever be made to employ the panel technique without adequate preparation to insure its effectiveness. If the panel is to serve its full purpose, the following preparations should be made:

1. The problem to be discussed should be one in which pupils evidence a lively interest.

2. The panel membership should be neither too large nor too small. Usually not more than five nor less than three persons should be placed upon the panel.

3. The panel discussion should be adjusted to the time which can be devoted to it. There must be time for the chairman to introduce the topic and time for each panel member to make his contributions; the group should be provided opportunity to contribute its share; and a brief summary by the chairman is usually desirable. The in-

roduction and the summary should not consume more than five minutes of the total time. Other divisions of time can be made to adjust to the length of the homeroom period.

4. Each member of the panel should know what he is supposed to do and be prepared to do his part well. This will involve working with the members of the panel on matters of timing, materials to be used, and possible questions students will ask from the floor.

5. The entire homeroom group should know when and how to participate in the discussion. These things they will soon learn through guided experiences. The teacher must be careful that the panel does not result in stilted formality or in chaos.

Although the first few panel discussions may not measure up to the teacher's expectations, it is a technique of much promise, and therefore should not be cast out but should be given every opportunity to succeed. In this, as in any other type of group guidance work, pupils must be given the chance to grow in their ability to participate effectively.

THE REPORT

The report occupies an important place among homeroom activities, but it should be used judiciously. Reports may be of many different kinds. There may be reports of meetings or of committees, periodic reports of the financial status of the homeroom; or reports by pupils of some of their own experiences for the benefit of the larger group. Since our concern here is with guidance as it relates to problems about which pupils worry most, there may be reports of investigations which bring authentic information to the attention of the entire group in order that all pupils may have materials with which to think their ways through their problems.

The greatest benefits from the report are usually realized when the homeroom teacher makes certain that:

1. The report is appropriate; that it bears upon a problem that is of interest to the group.

2. It is based upon reliable information. The reporter should indicate the source of his information, giving a few facts about the authority of the materials cited. Otherwise, fellow students may not be willing to give the report serious attention.

3. The report is short and easily understood. One safeguard is to be sure that the reporter *himself* knows and understands what he is reporting.

4. A series of reports on different phases of the same problem follows an orderly sequence, each report lending force and clarity to the other.

5. Reporters have prepared their reports well. This will necessitate that the homeroom teacher work with pupils in preparation of their reports. The teacher can, and should, ban poor reports.

VISITORS

From time to time in the course of a year, the homeroom teacher and his pupils will want to invite someone from outside the school to meet with the group. This offers opportunities to get firsthand information which should by all means be capitalized on. There are many people in practically every community who are both able and willing to help youth with their problems—their personal and social worries. These people, who represent to youth real life, offer one of the best possible sources of information. They also provide the inspiration and variation that every pupil needs from time to time. Furthermore, visitors from busy walks of life outside the school have points of view which are conditioned by forces sometimes completely unknown to the best of teachers.

The selection of the visitor who is to help boys and girls is an important consideration. The following criteria will be useful to the teacher in making the selection, as well as in preparing pupils to receive the greatest benefits from the visit.

1. The person to be invited should be able to express himself understandably. This suggests neither purist manner of speech (although there is nothing objectionable about it), nor oratorical habits of address. Simple, direct speech is to be desired.

2. The visitor should be personable. Other things being equal, the one who has attractive personal qualities has a pronounced advantage.

3. The visitor should be a popular choice among pupils. It is generally unwise for the homeroom teacher arbitrarily to force a visitor upon his pupils for the purpose of helping them solve their problems. The merits of several people should be known, and pupils

should be allowed to suggest and to choose the visitor. Again, it is always well to remember that pupils know many people in the community, and they usually know who among these people is best able to present information they desire upon a given topic.

4. The visitor should be one who has achieved success in his field. There is no justification for inviting someone who has not achieved success in relation to the problem about which pupils desire information. Pupils will not heed what he says. They want information and counsel from those who know. Moreover, they have the right to authoritative information. Good counsel given by one who is not recognized as being successful will not be heard by youth. For example, a few years ago a county juvenile officer ushered a fourteen-year-old boy into the office of a certain principal. Among other things, the officer said to the boy, "Son, you better stay in school and get that education while the gettin's good. I *know* what education means because I never went higher'n the third grade." After the officer had gone, the boy, being thus admonished, turned to the principal and said, "How could Mr. X know what education means when he is so uneducated himself?" The boy evidently did not expect an answer to his question for he quickly added, "He got his job by hustling votes for Mr. Y."

5. The visitor should want to help youth solve their problems. There is no place in a guidance situation for the person who takes advantage of the occasion merely to parade his own accomplishments before young people. He should be sincere, he should evince a warm interest in the pupils, and he should be honest.

Having agreed upon the person to visit the homeroom, there are other items to be considered in order that the best results may be gained from his visit. Among the more important are these:

1. The visitor should be allowed ample time to prepare for his meeting with the group. The date should be fixed at least a week before the time he is to appear.

2. The visitor should know precisely what is expected of him and what the pupils want discussed.

3. The visitor should know exactly when and where the homeroom group meets, and he should be urged to be on time.

4. The visitor should know how much time he is allowed and whether he should speak to the group or be prepared only for discussion, or both.

5. The visitor should know what age group he is to meet with.
6. Pupils should be prepared for the visitor. They will need to know something about *him as a person and what they can expect him to contribute to their understanding of the problem to be discussed*. They may prepare questions in advance. If the visitor is to lecture, they should know what he is to talk about. They can then be prepared to listen and take notes for future reference.

THE EXCURSION

Boys and girls are vitally interested in problems which are social and civic in nature. Many of their worries lie in this area. Inasmuch as discussions in the homeroom are almost sure to include such matters as recreational possibilities and facilities, community leadership, and vocational and avocational opportunities, the excursion can be used as an excellent means of gathering facts and developing understanding. To be effective, the homeroom teacher should plan the excursion carefully. Pupils can assist in the planning of this activity in a variety of ways, and their assistance should be encouraged.

Some of the essential steps in planning the excursion are these:

1. Be sure that there are definite purposes of the excursion, and that these purposes are understood by pupils.
2. All pre-excursion arrangements should be made some time before the day decided upon for the excursion. This will include such details as:
 - a. Clearing with the principal
 - b. Arranging for transportation, if needed
 - c. Securing consent of the person in charge of the place to be visited
 - d. Arranging for guide service, if needed
 - e. Arranging for on-the-spot conferences wherever desirable
 - f. Providing the necessary materials and equipment for study at the point of interest
 - g. Giving full directions as to procedure from the time of departure to the time of return
3. The excursion should be timely.
4. Each student should have definite responsibilities in so far as this is practicable.

5. The excursion should be planned within the limits of the time available.

The outcome of the excursion will depend upon the nature of the problem under consideration, the manner in which it is conducted, and the use made of the information gathered. The teacher should assist students in organizing and summarizing information so that there may be reasonable assurance that results will be in keeping with the purposes of the excursion. It is wise, also, to help young people see as many implications as possible in the facts gained through this medium. Umstattd¹⁵ lists the following twelve advantages of the excursion:

1. It shows natural phenomena in their proper settings.
2. It tends to blend school life with the outside world, putting children in direct touch, under learning situations, with things, persons, movements, relationships, environments, occupations, tendencies, trends, functionings.
3. It stimulates interest in natural as well as man-made things and situations, and enables students to know intimately their environment.
4. It involves the consideration and solution of problems arising from individual and group participation in natural social situations.
5. It affords opportunities to develop keenness and accuracy of observation and to experience the joy of discovery.
6. It sets up a "challenge" to solve, and thus stimulates constructive, creative thinking.
7. It helps children to organize their knowledge.
8. It develops initiative and self-activity, making pupils active agents rather than passive recipients.
9. It provides helpful practices, and thereby cultivates the habit of spending leisure time profitably.
10. It serves to arouse ambitions and determine aims.
11. It provides for valuable correlation of subjects.
12. It effects genuine socialization of school procedure.

THE DEMONSTRATION

The demonstration is peculiarly adapted for use in the homeroom. A well-timed demonstration, given by a capable demonstrator, has proved its effectiveness many times. The homeroom teacher will find

¹⁵ J. G. Umstattd, *Secondary School Teaching*, pp. 309-310, Ginn & Company, Boston, 1944.

many opportunities to use this very effective device when pupils are working toward solutions of personal and social problems that cause them considerable worry. For example, boys and girls in high school worry about not being able to meet people. They do not know what to say upon being introduced. They are frequently embarrassed because they do not know how to introduce other young people. A desire to be socially graceful is expressed by them in many ways. Such matters of social correctness as these may be easily demonstrated. In problems of health and safety also, the demonstration can prove its worth. A first-aid demonstration can be used advantageously to insure proper measures in case of accident. Other demonstrations, such as applying cosmetics or tying a necktie will suggest themselves to the homeroom teacher and to pupils from time to time as problem areas unfold.

A few general principles will help to make the demonstration effective. The following are suggested.

1. The demonstration should be timely; it should meet a specific purpose.
2. The demonstration should be well prepared; the demonstrator should know precisely *what* the demonstration is to accomplish.
3. The homeroom group should be prepared for the demonstration.
4. The person giving the demonstration should be able to do the work with facility, ease, and naturalness. He should also be able to make pointed comments that emphasize the purpose as he proceeds with the demonstration.
5. The demonstration should be of particular interest to the group, it should answer pupils' questions about *how* something is done.
6. Timing is important. Time should be allowed for the demonstrator to complete his presentation, including preliminary and concluding comments, and for students to raise questions for purposes of clarifying meanings.

CONTINUOUS DATA GATHERING IS IMPORTANT

The homeroom teacher-counselor is uniquely situated for the continuous business of gathering information and data about each of his pupils. Not only does he utilize tests of various kinds, but he also observes each pupil in his homeroom, and he systematically records his observations, to be checked and refined by succeeding observa-

tions. He uses various devices to discover the personal and social problems which tend to worry his own pupils, and he compares his findings with those of other homeroom teachers and with the findings of other guidance workers in the school. For example, one of the best means of keeping up to date on the problems which worry his pupils most is from time to time to permit pupils to list their worries and drop them in a box marked for the purpose. Pupils will respond favorably when they realize that the chief purpose of their homeroom teacher is to help them to remove their worries.

Another device for keeping up to date on the kinds of problems pupils are most concerned about is to permit them to check a list of those with which they would like assistance in the homeroom. The homeroom teacher may prepare a list of topics from the problems presented by students as described in other chapters of this book.

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Developmental Guidance in Secondary School

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